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THE WARWICK  
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FIFTH BOOK

~~ANY~~ THIRTY STORIES AND BIOGRAPHIES  
FROM 1688 TO THE PRESENT TIME

BY

J. H. ROSE, M.A.

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## PUBLISHERS' PREFACE.

In writing this book, an endeavour has been made to fulfil the obvious intention of the Educational Code, namely, to interest the children in English history by *stories* of some of its great events and some of the great men who adorn its pages. This aim being kept steadily in view throughout, it seemed right to select certain important incidents and characters, and to deal with them in some detail, and in as interesting a way as possible; rather than to load the pages with a multitude of names and dates, in the vain effort to crowd into a few pages a continuous history which should be at once full and interesting. No systematic attempt, therefore, has been made to present an unbroken record of events from 1688 onwards to our own days; but it is hoped that the stories here given may succeed in awakening in the young readers an interest in their country's history, and a desire to know more of it.

Similar considerations have led to the avoidance of controversial and religious questions which would only perplex children, and of constitutional details which their intelligence is not ripe enough to understand.

Since, however, some teachers might reasonably wish to provide their pupils with a means of threading the stories together, the appended summary has been made practically a succinct history of England between the dates above mentioned. Here a distinction is clearly made, by the use of different types, between the portion which summarizes what is actually included in the reading lessons, and that which gives additional information.

Upon the pictorial illustrations, the importance of which is insisted on by the Code, much care has been expended. Some are derived from great historical paintings and old prints; others are from drawings by some of the best artists of the day; all, it is hoped, will succeed in imparting additional interest to the historical facts, scenes, and characters which they portray. Maps and plans have been inserted in places, to enable the reader to follow the descriptions of battles and campaigns.

For the choice of subjects and the method of treatment the author is responsible; the Summary, and also the Explanations of Difficult Words, were prepared at the publishers' direction.

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# STORIES AND BIOGRAPHIES

FROM 1688 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

## WILLIAM OF ORANGE.

### 1. THE LANDING OF WILLIAM AND THE FLIGHT OF JAMES.

One of the fairest parts of the English coast is Torbay in South Devon. On the morning of the fifth of November, 1688, the fisher-folk there were surprised to see a great fleet of some 600 ships sail into their bay; but they helped the soldiers to land in boats, and they cheered loudly when the leader stepped on English soil. He was thin, and rather tall, with a pale face lit up by a quiet, steady gaze. He did not often speak, but his words and his tone showed him to be a leader of men. This was William of Orange, who was to become one of the greatest of our kings.

When he landed in Torbay he was only the chief man in the Dutch Republic. Why did he come to our shores with a great fleet and army? Why did the men of Devon welcome his coming? William had long been known as a wise ruler, a brave and

skilful general, and a firm Protestant. In those days the Protestants had to struggle hard for liberty to worship God as they thought right; for there was a powerful king of France called Lewis XIV., who persecuted the Protestants in his own realm, and was making war on them in neighbouring States.

In our own land also the Protestant faith was in danger, for our king, James II., had been trying to make people become Roman Catholics. He had tried to punish some of the bishops who would not do all that he ordered them to do. He had ruled without a parliament, and on his own authority he had made harsh and persecuting laws, and had set other laws aside.

And when the English people began to struggle against these unlawful acts, James brought over thousands of Irish troops to oppress his own subjects. In their despair of any peaceful remedy for this misrule, several of the chief men of England sent over a secret message to William of Orange to come and help them to save their liberties; for William had married the English Princess Mary, daughter of King James, and owing to his tried courage on the battlefield he was looked upon as the leader of the Protestants in all their struggles.

That is why William was cheered by the men of Devon when he landed in Torbay; for he and his Dutch troops came as friends, not as foes. Remember,

then, that William's great fleet touched our shores just one hundred years after the Spanish Armada had tried to conquer England, but had been shattered to pieces by English courage, and by the storms of our seas. It is curious, too, that William



Brixham, Torbay, the Landing-place of William of Orange.

of Orange landed on the fifth of November, the day when we remember the "Gunpowder Treason Plot".

As William and his troops marched towards London, he found our people more and more anxious to help him, while King James began to find out how many enemies he had made in his own army and Court. His officers and courtiers began to take William's side; and even his own daughter



Anne fled to join her father's foes. When James heard of this he said, "God help me: my own children have forsaken me!"

When the despairing king found that only the Irish troops could be trusted to fight for him, he sent his queen and his infant son away secretly to France, and a little later he followed them into exile.

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## 2. WILLIAM AND THE JACOBITES.

The Londoners cheered loudly, and wore orange cockades to show their joy, when their deliverer, William of Orange, and his troops marched into Westminster. But they were soon disappointed with him. He was "wonderfully serious and silent", and his reserved or morose behaviour displeased those who came to pay their court to him. The conduct of his queen was a complete contrast. She "smiled upon and talked to everybody"; but this also gave offence, as it was thought to be heartless levity at the time when her father, King James, was leaving England as an exile.

After a short interval of suspense and unrest, an English Parliament offered the crown of the United Kingdom to William, and to his wife Mary; for it was known that they would rule justly.

Thus, in a few weeks, James lost the crown because he would not rule according to the laws; and William won the crown because he had regained

## WILLIAM AND THE JACOBITES.

for the English people their old laws and liberties. This change is called the Revolution of 1688; and since then no English king has tried to rule without a parliament, or to break the laws of the land.

•Most people were glad to be rid of James, for he



William the Third, Prince of Orange.

had tried to make men worship in his way, although they did not agree with his religious belief. One of the first Acts of Parliament under William III. gave to Nonconformists or Dissenters the right to worship as they thought fit.

Yet in spite of all this the English people did not much like William, because of his foreign ways

and his cold manners, and William soon found that it was harder to keep his crown than it had been to win it. Indeed, there were many persons who wanted James to come back from over the sea and be king again. They were called Jacobites, or friends of James. When they drank the king's health, they would wave their glasses over the water-bottle, to show that they drank, not to William, but to the king "over the water".

England, Scotland, and Ireland had the same king. Most of the Scottish people were glad to have William as their ruler; but the wild Highlanders, who lived among the mountains of the north and west of Scotland, rose in arms for King James. Claverhouse, or Viscount Dundee as he was called, was their leader.

"So let each cavalier who loves honour and me,  
Come follow the bonnets of bonnie Dundee."

William's soldiers marched against them through a rugged pass in Perthshire called Killiecrankie; but the movements of the regular troops were cumbrous, their guns fired slowly, and the nimble Highlanders, rushing down the steep with their broadswords, put them to flight. But Dundee fell dead as his men were winning the victory, and they did not gain any more successes.

This discouraged the clansmen; and when William's government began to give money to

the chiefs, and to promise a pardon to all who would submit, they all did so except the Macdonald Clan, which lived in Glencoe. The chief of that clan was a few days too late in taking the oath to obey William. Now this clan was much hated by the Campbells, who lived not very far away. The worst possible interpretation was given to the conduct of the Macdonalds in the report which was sent to King William, so that, on reading it, he exclaimed, "It will be proper to root out that set of thieves!"

Soldiers were accordingly sent to Glencoe, and they stayed there as though they were friends. After they had been kindly entertained for more than a week, they suddenly rose, murdered about forty of the clan, and destroyed their village. Many more of the clansmen perished in the snows of winter amidst the wild country which surrounds their glen.

This massacre of Glencoe, as it is called, has left a dark stain on William's reign.

'The hand that mingled in the meal  
At midnight drew the felon steel,  
And gave the host's kind breast to feel  
Meed for his hospitality.

"Then woman's shriek was heard in vain,  
Nor infancy's unpitied plain  
More than the warrior's groan could gain  
Respite from ruthless butchery."

## 3. THE WAR IN IRELAND.

In Ireland there was much harder fighting than in Scotland; for most of the Irish were Roman Catholics, as they are to-day. They did not like to see James II. driven from the throne and William become king; and they hoped that with the help of James and some French officers they would keep him as their king, and be free from the control of England and of the Protestants. James also saw that his best chance was to go from France to Ireland and rouse the Irish against William. He took ship and landed at Kinsale, and was soon at the head of a large army. Nearly all Ireland, except the Protestants of the north, owned James as king.

Even in the north the Irish Protestants were so few that they could not meet James's troops in the open, but had to take refuge within the walls of Londonderry. James's army followed them there, and expected soon to storm the weak walls of that city. But there were thousands of brave men in Londonderry who would not give in. An old clergyman named Walker acted as governor, and kept up their spirits by his brave words and by the sermons which he preached in the Cathedral. Several times the defenders drove James's troops away from their walls.

At last their foes closed them all round so as to

starve them out. Still the defenders held out, and they repaired by night the breaches which the Irish cannon had made in the day. But their hunger became worse and worse, until they had to hunt the rats and mice for food, and a dog's paw was



Queen Mary.

sold for more than five shillings. At last, when all hope seemed to be gone, three English ships forced their way up the river, and brought food to the brave defenders. So James's troops, after trying for over one hundred days to take Londonderry, had to abandon the attempt.

In the next year (1690) William landed in the

north of Ireland and began to march towards Dublin. The Jacobite army was drawn up on the south bank of the River Boyne, to prevent William's troops crossing that river. The day before the battle William was wounded by a ball; but his brave and undaunted spirit kept him on horseback for many hours in his determination to inspire his men.

On the next day was fought the battle of the Boyne. William sent some of his troops to cross the river higher up, so as to make the Jacobites fearful of being cut off from Dublin; and most of their best troops were thus drawn away from the bank of the river. Then William's men rushed into the river, crossed it by a ford, and though they suffered much from the Irish bullets, yet they drove their foes away from the bank and scattered them in flight.

The Irish horsemen charged bravely, but they could not win the day for James. On William's side the brave old General Schomberg, and Walker, the hero of Londonderry, were the chief men who were killed.

James rode away as fast as he could to Dublin and thence to Kinsale, where he took ship for France. The Irish were enraged at his cowardice; and one of their officers said to one of William's men, "Change kings, and we will fight you again". After a few more fruitless struggles, the whole of

Ireland submitted to King William; and unhappily the Protestants after their victory oppressed the Roman Catholic Irish very cruelly. So the old enmity lived on in that land.

#### 4. THE WAR WITH FRANCE.

The help which the King of France had given to James led to war between England and France. In the end our sailors had the best of it; for in a great battle off Cape La Hogue the French ships were so hotly attacked that they had to make for land. Even that did not save them, for our brave sailors rowed up to them in boats, and burned most of the French ships under the eyes of James and the French troops. When the news of this victory reached London, Queen Mary II. gave up the royal palace of Greenwich for the wounded English sailors; and for a long time it was used for old and disabled sailors of our navy. It was the first great public hospital in our land.

King William was not so fortunate in his battles on land, which were mostly fought in Flanders. His fixed determination had always been to band England with the other Protestant States in a league against the great King of France, Lewis XIV.; and, now that he was undisputed King of Great Britain and Ireland, he gained his end. But the French army was larger and better equipped



than all the forces—English, Dutch, Spanish, and German—which could be used for the defence of



Battle of Cape La Hogue.

Holland. Besides, William was not so clever a general as some of the French, and he was often beaten; but his spirits always rose in time of danger. When his friends despaired he was calm

(M 149)

and determined; and he generally managed to steal a march on his foes while they were enjoying their triumph. In the end he was able to hold his own, and to save the Netherlands from being conquered by the French; and then Lewis XIV. made peace with William.

#### 5. THE CLOSE OF WILLIAM THE THIRD'S REIGN.

One of the worst of William's trials was the death of his queen. In those days towns were not kept so clean as they are now; and the practice of vaccination had not yet been introduced. For these reasons small-pox was a terrible and generally a fatal scourge. It attacked Queen Mary II., and she soon died of it.

William was generally cool and stern, but he really had a tender heart; and he showed it now. He said to one of the bishops, "I was the happiest man on earth, and now I am the most miserable." Still he held up bravely; and in the last eight years of his lonely life he stoutly faced the French and his secret foes in England.

Many English people did not like to be ruled by a king who was a Dutchman and could not speak English properly. Indeed, William found that very few of his Ministers and generals could be trusted. Some were secret friends of James, and some stole the public money. But when William

raised to power some of his trusty Dutchmen, there was more grumbling than ever.

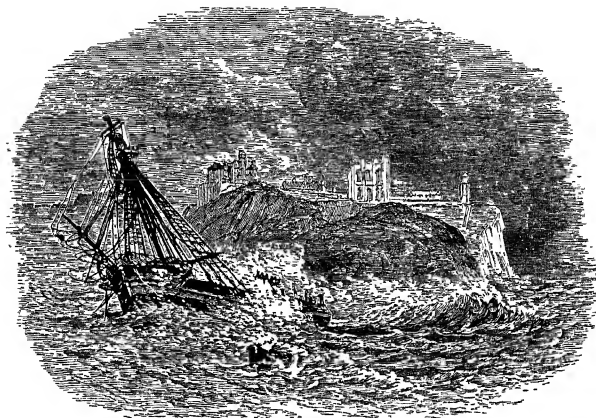
Forty Jacobites made a plot to murder him as he was on his way back from hunting to his favourite palace, Hampton Court; but one of them secretly told about the plot. So it ended only in several of them being executed.

Even after this the English Parliament was very jealous of William, and would hardly grant him the supplies which were needed to make Lewis XIV. keep the peace. But when James II. died in France, Lewis at once showed that he would try to make James's son King of England. This enraged the English people, who were determined not to let Lewis meddle in English affairs. For this and other reasons there was another war with France; and William's last parliament raised the British army to 40,000 men.

In the midst of these difficulties William had an accident which led to his death. He was riding in the park at Hampton Court, when his horse stumbled over a mole-hill, threw the king, and broke his collar-bone. William had always been weakly; and after long years of hard work and anxiety he had no strength to recover from the shock, and he died in 1702.

Few men have had so hard a life of struggle as William of Orange. His father died before he was born; and his foes kept the young lad out of his rights in Holland.

Nevertheless, at twenty-two years of age his energy brought him to the first place in the Dutch Republic; and, using his powers with steadfast courage, he not only freed his land from the



The last of the *Princess Mary*.

This vessel was built on the Thames about the beginning of the seventeenth century. She was purchased by the Prince of Orange, who named her the *Princess Mary*. In her he made his voyage to England in 1688. Thereafter she was employed for a century and a quarter in the merchant service, and was finally wrecked and went to pieces on the rocks off Tynemouth in 1827.

French, but became the champion of the Protestants of Europe. At thirty-eight years of age he became King of England. He restored liberty to our land, he kept France from conquering the Netherlands, and but for him the Protestants would have been in sore straits all over Europe.

The wonderful career of William of Orange is therefore a signal example of the influence for good which one able and determined man can exert on his own and on other peoples. Beginning life as an orphan and almost as a prisoner, he yet rose superior to these difficulties which beset his youth; he became successively the liberator of Holland and of England, and ended his life of toil and struggle as the victorious champion of the Protestant cause in Europe.

## MARLBOROUGH.

### 1. THE BALANCE OF POWER.

John Churchill, who later on became Duke of Marlborough, was one of the greatest generals of all time. He was born in 1650 at Ashe, in Devonshire. Even in his youth he showed himself to be a brave and skilful officer, and when he served with the Royal Guards in France he was publicly thanked for his ability and energy.

The French knew him as "the handsome Englishman". His figure was tall and well-formed, his comely features were often graced by the most winning smile, and his speech was equally attractive; but with all his grace and gentleness no man living maintained his dignity better. It was only natural that he should make friends on all sides, and many grand presents were made to him.

Unfortunately, this made him too fond of money, and he often stooped to mean and underhand actions so as to further his interests. Thus, though he was advanced to favour by James II.



John, Duke of Marlborough

for putting down a revolt, yet he deserted to William of Orange when he seemed likely to become king. For this William gave him the title of Earl of Marlborough, and soon sent him to the Netherlands to lead the British troops against the French. But Marlborough soon began working in a treacherous way for James II., and against

William III. For this treachery he was brought back to England, and was imprisoned in the Tower for a time.

Yet he was finally pardoned, and was sent again to lead our forces against the French; for there was no other general who could hope to beat our powerful foes then. You will understand how great Marlborough was if you know what were the difficulties which he had to face.

William III. had had very hard work to keep the great King of France, Lewis XIV., from conquering Holland. But just before William III. died, the King of France had become still more powerful than he had been before. Lewis had long ago married a princess of the Spanish royal family, so that his grandson had a claim to the crown of Spain. The King of Spain had no children of his own, and when he died he left his many lands to the grandson of the King of France. This young man, Philip V., was to govern not only Spain and her vast colonies in America, but also a great part of Italy, and the Spanish Netherlands, which we now call Belgium. As he was a grandson of the King of France, of course he would be a close ally of France.

Men began to ask themselves what would happen if nearly half Europe was governed by the same family. The English ambassador at Paris even wrote these words: "I fear that in a few years

France will be master of us all." From this Marlborough saved us. He restored the *balance of power*,—that is, he prevented any one State from growing so strong as to control the others.



Queen Anne.

When William III. died, the Princess Anne, who was the second daughter of James II., became Queen of England. The new queen was at first very fond of Marlborough's wife, and they used to write to each other as bosom friends. Neither Anne nor the greater part of the English people looked with much favour on the war with France,



but Marlborough was kept in his command, and was made duke.

## 2. THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM.

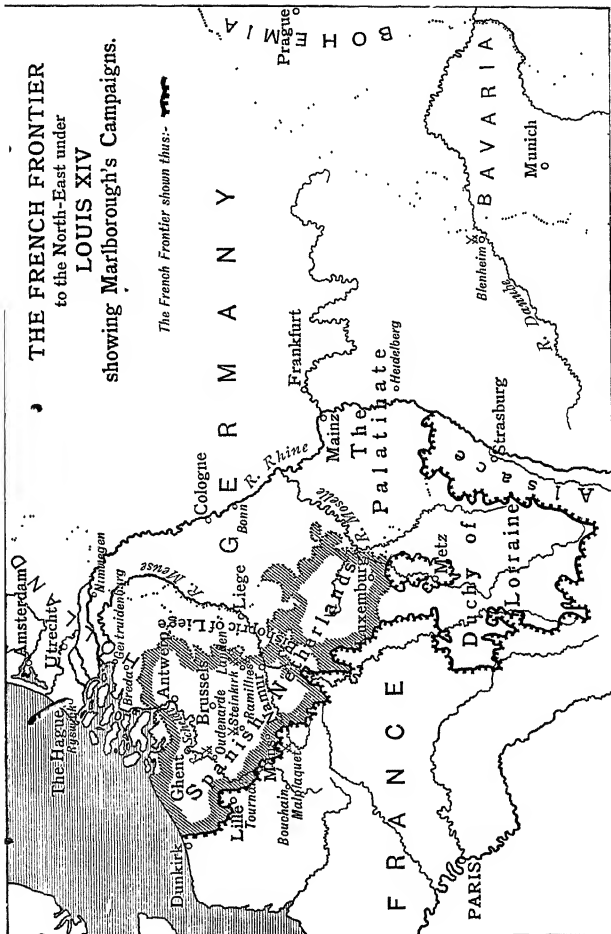
Marlborough had command of the British and Dutch troops in the Netherlands, but the Dutch officers and advisers were timid, and often wanted to put off doing anything until it was too late to do it. As Marlborough always wanted to strike quick and hard at the French, he was often almost in despair. It was like putting a race-horse and a mule to draw the same carriage. But, fortunately, Marlborough had a very good temper. His favourite motto was "Patience will overcome all things", and by his winning speech he generally got his way in the end.

In the first two campaigns he showed his skill and energy by taking five fortresses from the French and Spaniards, and thereby saved Holland from being conquered. The Dutch now showed how thankful they were to their deliverer. Once he and his staff were very near being captured by some plunderers, and the news got about that he had been made prisoner. When he arrived in safety at The Hague, the Dutch people wept for joy to see him.

But Marlborough was to do far more than save Holland. In his next campaigns he crushed the

# THE FRENCH FRONTIER to the North-East under LOUIS XIV showing Marlborough's Campaigns.

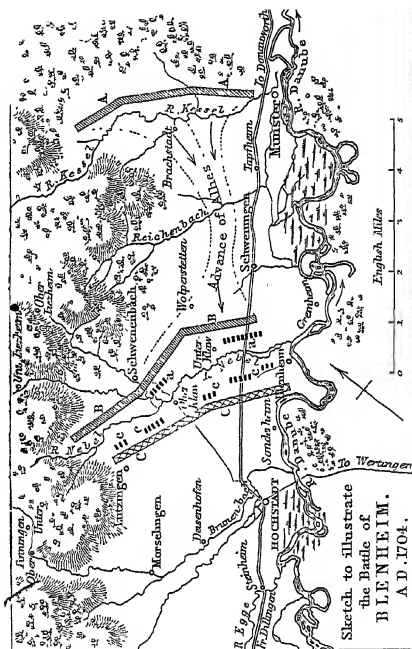
The French Frontier shown thus: -



power of France, which then seemed so threatening to Europe. The French, with the help of the Bavarians, hoped to conquer a great part of Germany. Marlborough made his plans secretly and skilfully to prevent this. He quickly led his troops along the bank of the river Rhine, and then, turning up the valley of the Neckar, he took the Bavarians by surprise, and defeated them on the bank of the Danube. The French sent a large army to help the Bavarians; while Marlborough was joined by the Imperial troops, commanded by Prince Eugène, who was also a great general.

The French and Bavarians now took their stand on a line of hills, in front of which was a stream that flowed into the Danube. The strongest part of their position was the village of Blenheim, which rises high above this stream and above the swiftly-flowing Danube. The French Marshal Tallard fortified the village, and kept many of his best troops there, leaving other parts of his long line not so well guarded. Soon the battle raged all along the line, and the French at first beat back the attack of our men on Blenheim. Then Marlborough ordered his soldiers merely to keep up a pretence of attacking this strong position, while he made his chief attack across the marshy ground against the weakest part of the enemy's line—the centre. It was a difficult and dangerous task to cross the marshy valley and the stream under the fire of the

French and the Bavarians, but at last it was done; and late in the afternoon Marlborough led 8000 of



AA, Camp of allies before the battle.

BB, Disposition of allied army at the commencement of the engagement.

CC, Disposition of the French at the commencement of the engagement.

aa, Batteries of the allies.

cc, Batteries of the French.

his horsemen up the opposite slope, to charge an even larger force of French cavalry.

His foes were dismayed at his determined onsets, and at the second charge they fled in confusion. Hard pressed by the victorious allies, they made for

the Danube, hoping to cross it by a ford; but the water was too deep and the current too strong. Hundreds were swept away by the waters, and the rest, among them Marshal Tallard, their commander, surrendered to Marlborough's troopers. But this was not all. The 11,000 French foot-soldiers, who had been so bravely defending Blenheim, were now, by the flight of the French centre, quite cut off from their comrades, and had to lay down their arms.

Altogether the French and Bavarians lost nearly 40,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, as well as most of their cannons, and all their tents and baggage. The survivors, only some 20,000 in number, retreated with all haste towards France.

### 3. RAMILLIES AND MALPLAQUET.

Such was the great victory of Blenheim, which was won mainly by the skill and daring of Marlborough. An English officer who was in the battle thus describes his conduct there. "No general ever did behave with more composure of temper and presence of mind than did the duke. He was in all places wherever his presence was required, without fear of danger or in the least hurry, giving his orders with all the calmness imaginable."

And yet we know that Marlborough worked very hard indeed. For seventeen hours he rode about

on that day, giving orders and seeing after the pursuit. Indeed, shortly afterwards, he wrote to his duchess that he had become distressingly thin, and that if he did not soon return to be tended by her, he would be in a consumption. Thanks to Marlborough, Germany was saved from a French invasion, and he recovered nearly all the German strongholds which the enemy had seized earlier in the war.

For these great services Marlborough, on his return to England, was thanked by Parliament. The splendid estate of Woodstock, near Oxford, was also given to him and to his heirs.

In the next year little was done; but in the year after that, when the French made an effort to regain ground in the Netherlands, Marlborough met and defeated them in the great battle of Ramillies. The fighting was severe, and at one time Marlborough, when rallying his men, was nearly surrounded by the French. At last his foes fled with heavy losses, and they had to give up all the Netherlands which they had held.

“There was now a chance of peace if the allies had not asked too much. But they were puffed up with pride, and probably Marlborough wanted the war to go on, so that he might win more glory and wealth. The French and Spaniards did far better in the next year; and not till 1708 did Marlborough win another great victory — that of

Oudenarde. In the same year he also took the strong fortress of Lille, after a gallant defence by one of the ablest of French generals.

France was now in sore straits. She had lost terribly in men and money, and her peasants were crushed by the heavy taxes needed to keep on the war. Instead of France conquering Europe, it seemed as though the allies were likely to overwhelm France.

But when they asked far harder terms than before from the French king, he appealed to his people for another effort, and they nobly responded. Though their troops were only half-clothed, half-armed, and half-fed, yet they fought more bravely than ever. After a long and desperate battle at Malplaquet, Marlborough drove the French out of their lines; but his troops lost more heavily than the French.

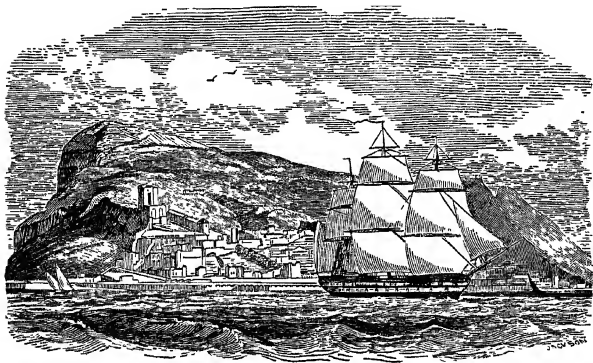
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#### 4. MARLBOROUGH'S DOWNFALL.

The English people were now quite weary of the war, and, besides, Queen Anne was on very cool terms with Marlborough. She had had a violent quarrel with his wife, and dismissed her from all her high offices. In vain did the duke, when he came back to England, throw himself on his knees begging the queen not to disgrace his wife. The man who had subdued the power of France could

not bend the will of the resentful queen; and he himself was soon disgraced. It happened thus:

The Whig Ministry which had supported him had become more and more unpopular; and at last a Tory Ministry was formed by the queen. Some of



Old view of the Town and Rock of Gibraltar.

the new ministers, who desired to ruin Marlborough, brought up charges against him that he had been taking the public money, and the charges were proved to be correct. Marlborough's excuses were that others had done the same, and that he had used much of it for getting news about the enemy's plans. These were lame excuses; and as the new Ministers desired to ruin Marlborough, the queen soon dismissed him from all his offices. He bore his disgrace with dignity and manliness, and, with



his duchess, retired to the Continent after peace was made.

The terms of peace left England not very much stronger, for all her triumphs. We were to keep Gibraltar and Minorca, which had been conquered in the war; and we gained Nova Scotia, the lands around Hudson's Bay, as well as fuller control over Newfoundland. The Dutch were better protected against France, but elsewhere Lewis XIV. held his own.

When George I. became King of Great Britain and Ireland in 1714, he restored Marlborough to his honours; but the famous general never returned to active service, and after some years of retirement he died in 1722.

Marlborough was more than fifty years of age before he commanded a great army, and yet, when most men begin to think of retiring, he, by his great energy and genius, saved Europe from being overrun by French armies.

Had he always been straightforward in his conduct, he would have been able to accomplish far more by his brilliant victories. A great French writer has said of him that he never besieged a fortress which he did not take, or fought a battle which he did not win. This cannot be said of any other general in modern times, not even of Wellington.

## THE REVOLT OF 1715.

On Queen Anne's death in 1714 the crown of Great Britain and Ireland went to Prince George of Hanover, who was descended from our King James I. He was a heavy, dull man, who never could speak English, and did not care for England. The English people put up with him because he was a Protestant. If the son of James II. had not been a Roman Catholic, he would have been welcomed back from exile in France, and gladly accepted as king.

The Jacobites, that is, the supporters of the exiled prince, were far more numerous in Scotland than in England. The Act of Union with England had caused much discontent in the northern country; and when the Earl of Mar began to arouse the Highlanders against George I.'s rule, the Pretender set sail for Scotland.

Mar had 12,000 men under arms for the Stuart prince, and soon held all Scotland north of the Firth of Forth. Part of his men crossed the Forth and marched towards the border. They crossed into England near Carlisle, although the wild Highlanders were very loth to leave Scotland. Marching carelessly southward, they were at last brought to bay at Preston in Lancashire, and after a short fight they had to surrender, some 1500 in number.

On that very same day the rebels were defeated

in Scotland. Mar had had to retreat before King George's troops, which were commanded by the Duke of Argyle, but finally the two armies met at Sheriffmuir, between Perth and Stirling. On one wing the Highlanders were successful, but on the other Argyle led his men across some frozen marshes, attacked the rebels on their flank, and put them to flight. On the whole, the royal troops had the best of it, and Mar retreated.

Then, when it was too late, the Pretender landed further north and called himself king. But he showed little spirit; and when Argyle marched against him, both he and Mar fled to France. Many of the chief insurgents were pardoned, and only a few were executed. One of the condemned English lords escaped from prison in woman's clothes, which his wife secretly brought to him.

Both England and Scotland began to settle down, because it was felt that the Pretender was foolish, selfish, and obstinate, but neither George I. nor his son, George II., gained the affection of the people, as was proved by the startling successes won by the young Pretender in 1745.

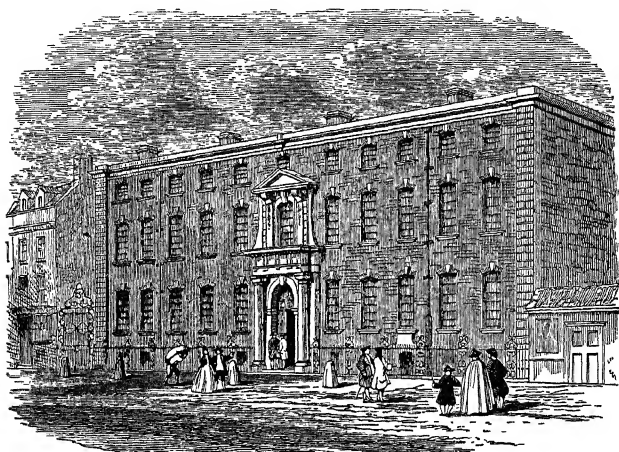
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## SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

### 1. THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE.

After the revolt of 1715 there was peace both at home and abroad, except for a short war with Spain.

During the many previous years of war, merchants had feared that French men-of-war would capture their ships, but now they felt sure that their ships might proceed on their voyages in safety. The



The Old South Sea House.

treaty of 1713 between Great Britain and Spain had also granted to English merchants the right of sending a merchant ship every year to the South Seas, as the Pacific Ocean was then called. For these reasons our commerce and wealth began to increase by leaps and bounds.

All this made people ready to speculate, that is, to venture their money in risky enterprises, and a

number of merchants and bankers formed a great Company for trading with the South Seas, and for gaining several privileges from our government. Their schemes caught the public fancy, and when this South Sea Company promised to make all rich who trusted their money to it, people rushed to do so and to take its shares. They paid absurdly high prices for very doubtful gains; and men and women, rich and poor, went almost crazy with excitement. As a song of that time ran:

“The lucky rogues, like spaniel dogs,  
Leap into South Sea Water,  
And there they fish for golden frogs,  
Not caring what comes after”.

When they regained their senses they saw that they had paid far too dear for profits which might never come. Then, all at once with equal folly they rushed to sell their shares, but very few people would buy. The great South Sea Bubble burst, and many thousands of people were ruined.

The only man who came forward with any plan for healing some of the misery was Robert Walpole, who was known to be the best man at figures in the House of Commons. He had warned people against trusting these schemes; and now he showed his skill in repairing some of the ruin. This brought him back to power as one of the chief of the king's Ministers, and for the next twenty-one years he was the chief man in England next to the king.

He was a rough Norfolk squire, who had long been a strong supporter of the Whig party. He had a complete belief in his own abilities and in his knowledge of men. Indeed, it was said of him that "his face was bronzed over by a glare of



Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards Earl of Orford.

confidence"; and he now showed great skill in managing men and in keeping his supporters contented. He was not a great orator; but in that corrupt age members of Parliament were more often led by secret bribes than by appeals to their reason or to the public interest. Still, Walpole really did feel that in crushing a Jacobite plot, and in keeping first George I. and then George II. on the throne, he was doing the best for his country, and

though he often used bad means to gain his ends, yet he managed to secure rest and quiet for our land.

Thus, when the Irish were much enraged because they thought that a bad coinage was to be forced on them, Walpole showed his good sense by giving way. Indeed, whenever it was possible, he gave way rather than make a public disturbance. His favourite mottoes were "Let sleeping dogs lie", and "Leave well alone".

Gradually most men came to feel that Walpole was necessary to the peace and prosperity of our land. If he resigned office, the Tories would have come back to power, and would perhaps have brought back the Pretender to be king. The merchants liked Walpole because he preserved peace; Dissenters liked him because he and the Whig party had put a stop to recent attempts at religious persecution, and George I. liked Walpole and the Whigs because they supported him and kept out the Stuarts.

## 2. THE ORIGIN OF THE "PRIME MINISTER".

As George I. could not speak English and detested English politics, he left off presiding at the meetings of his Ministers, at which affairs of public importance were discussed. Now, when men meet for business, there must always be some

one to preside, else there can be no order. Who was to direct the meetings of the Ministers? Gradually, as Walpole became more and more important, he directed the meetings of the Ministers, and was called the First, or Prime Minister.

Before Walpole's time the king's Ministers had all been equal, and had had to obey only the king or queen; but from that time onward the position of Prime Minister has become more and more important, until now he directs a good deal of the action of the other Ministers. In fact, the whole ministry now acts under the general guidance of the Prime Minister, and the chief Ministers form what is called a Cabinet. So that, because George I. and later on George II. trusted Walpole with the control of business for twenty-one years, there came this great change in our public life; and the Prime Minister has latterly had far more to do with public affairs than the reigning sovereign.

We must notice one other result of Walpole's long control of public affairs. Before his time the king or queen used often to forbid the passing of a law; but since then this has hardly ever been done. George I. and then George II. trusted Walpole to look after their interests. Therefore it came to be the custom for the king always to give his assent to Bills passed by Parliament. Thus the king's power became less, while that of Parliament and of the king's Ministers became greater and



greater. Remember, then, that in Walpole's time we see our system of government taking its present form.

We owe much to Sir Robert Walpole in other ways. He was the first English Minister who encouraged our commerce by letting raw material come into our country more freely, so that our manufactured goods became better and cheaper than before. He also made it easier to export our manufactures; and before very long, the value of our exports rose from £6,000,000 a year to more than £12,000,000. Our colonies also had some privileges granted to them for their trade, and altogether the British Empire grew greatly in wealth and power during the long ministry of Walpole.

But his very success raised up many enemies, who were jealous of him, and tried to poison the public mind against him. This was the case when he proposed a very useful reform in the collection of part of our taxes, so as to check smuggling. At that time money had to be paid to government officers on many articles before they might legally be landed. The sums which then had to be paid on silks, brandy, rum, tea, tobacco, and some other articles, were so large, that those articles were often smuggled in secretly so as to evade the law. As this caused a great loss to our revenue, Walpole proposed to tax these articles when they were in the country, and not at our ports. But many people had a violent

dislike to any such change, and as a great clamour was raised, he thought it best to drop his measure. Troubles in Scotland, and disputes between George II. and his son the Prince of Wales, also added to his difficulties; and after a long fight against his foes, he had to resign (1742). King George II. was deeply grieved at losing his trusty adviser, and, falling on his neck, he kissed him and begged to see him frequently.

Men soon found out how unable his foes were to take his place; and matters went from bad to worse for the next few years. After three years of retirement, death overtook the statesman who had done so much for the peace and prosperity of his country. Englishmen regretted his downfall, until a greater statesman came to power, William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.

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### “BONNIE PRINCE CHARLIE.”

#### 1. THE OUTBREAK IN THE NORTH.

As we saw in the last lesson, there was a good deal of discontent and trouble in England at and after the death of Walpole, and there was even more in Scotland. The Scots were still sore at their Parliament being united with that of England. In 1715 there had been a revolt of the Highlanders on behalf of the son of James II., which, however, came to nothing. But now, when Eng-

land was again at war with France, it seemed a favourable time for the Jacobites to rise again in revolt and try to win back the crown of Great



Prince Charlie receives the Highland Chiefs on board the *Doutelle*.

Britain for the son of James II., or the Old Pretender as he was called.

His son, the Young Pretender, was a tall, handsome, and spirited youth, with far more dash and energy than his father had shown in 1715; and though the French government did not help him much, yet he determined to sail to Scotland, even

if he landed there with only one follower. On the voyage he was nearly captured by an English man-of-war; but at last he set foot on Scottish soil near Moidart in Inverness-shire. Even the bold clansmen were aghast at his rashness in attempting with but seven followers to overthrow a powerful king like George II.; but the young prince, soon called Bonnie Prince Charlie, charmed all hearts by his winning ways. As a friend said of him, "If this prince once sets his eyes upon you, he will make you do whatever he pleases".

The Macdonalds and the brave chieftain Cameron of Lochiel joined his cause, and a successful skirmish with King George's troops raised the spirits of the Highlanders. They were delighted by the tall athletic form of the young prince, and by his sharing all their perils and hardships. At night he often lay down among them to sleep, sheltered only by his plaid.

When the royal troops were timidly withdrawn northwards to Inverness, the road towards the south was left open, and the Prince marched in triumph to Perth and thence to Edinburgh. At the old cross of the Scottish capital he caused his father to be proclaimed king; and, when the young prince rode into Edinburgh, the streets rang with the cheering of the rejoicing Jacobites, many of them pressing round to kiss the boots of the handsome young cavalier. He took up his abode for a time

at the ancient palace of Holyrood, where so many of his ancestors had dwelt.

Meanwhile King George's troops had been brought by sea from Aberdeen and were now at Prestonpans; but the wild rush of the Highlanders broke the regulars; and in ten minutes the field of battle was dotted with flying red-coats. The spoils of victory were great; but many of the Highlanders knew nothing of their value. One of them sold a watch for a trifle, saying that he was "glad to be rid of the creature: for she lived no time after he caught her". On the prince's return to Edinburgh, volunteers flocked to his standard, and soon he had nearly 6000 men.

In England people cared little for King George II., but they were alarmed at the news of the prince's victory. There was only one strong fortress in the north of England, viz., Newcastle; and Wesley, who was there at that time, thus describes the panic. "The walls are mounted with cannon, and everything prepared for an attack; but our poor neighbours are busy in removing their goods, and most of the best houses are left without furniture or inhabitants."

Charles, however, led his troops suddenly towards Carlisle, which tamely surrendered. On they marched towards Preston and Manchester. At the latter place, then quite a small town, he hoped to have an enthusiastic reception and to gain réin-

forcements. His entry must have been a strange sight. An eye-witness describes it thus: "He marched in on foot, clad in a Highland dress: no music but a pair of bagpipes". He was not very much cheered, and a still worse disappointment was that he gained only 200 recruits. The men of Cheshire showed still less liking for him and his "wild petticoat men".

## 2. VICTORY AND DEFEAT.

By quick marches Charles reached Derby; but 30,000 royal troops were not far off, and were ready to attack his band, now thinned by fatigue and desertion. His advisers counselled a retreat so as to gain reinforcements; and with grief and rage he and his Highlanders set out on their northward march. Many people thought that had he pushed on to London he might have taken it, so great was the scare among the royal troops.

Wearied by rapid marching, Charles's men reached Glasgow, where small favour was shown to his cause. A fanatic snapped a pistol at the prince as he rode along the Saltmarket. As a punishment for this Charles compelled the citizens to reft the Highlanders, whom they then heartily hated.

Turning to meet the royal troops, he led his men to a last victory at Falkirk. But after the battle

his army was much reduced by the desertion of many of the Highlanders, who made off to the mountains with their plunder. The Duke of Cumberland, now marching north in hot haste, soon compelled the prince to retreat towards Inverness. On Culloden Moor, not far from that town, was fought the last serious battle on British soil. The Highlanders were hungry and dispirited; and the Macdonalds, angry at not having the post of honour on the right wing of the rebel army, stood moody and motionless. Yet the other clansmen, by their wild rush, burst through the first line of the royal troops, only to be driven back by steady volleys from the second line. In their rage some of them stood hurling stones at the red-coats until a general charge of the royal troops swept them from the moor. No quarter was given to the rebels; and the severity of the Duke of Cumberland gained him the title of the Butcher.

Charles fled for his life. When his foes were closing all around him, a brave young lady, Flora Macdonald, helped him to escape, disguised in woman's clothes, to Skye. There and in other parts he was in the utmost danger, for the soldiers were searching for him everywhere. Yet, though a sum of £30,000 was promised to anyone who would capture him, not one of the poor clansmen betrayed him. The strangest experience of all was that the prince was befriended for three weeks by a band of

robbers, who hid him from his pursuers and fed him with the best of their food.

At last two French vessels came to rescue him from his perils, and he left the shores of Scotland at



Prince Charlie in hiding in Skye

the same spot where, fourteen months before, he had landed, flushed with the hope of regaining Great Britain for the Stuarts.

King George's government strove to crush out the Jacobite spirit in the Highlands by putting down the power of the chieftains, and by forbidding the clansmen to wear their kilt and tartan.



Later on many Highland regiments were raised to fight for George III.; and now they form some of the best and most devoted troops of Queen Victoria, for all soreness has now passed away.

Yet long after the rebellion of 1745 the clansmen yearned for the return of Bonnie Prince Charlie, and in this verse of an old Scottish song there breathes the devotion felt for the romantic young adventurer, so frank in speech and handsome in person, so gallant in fight and generous even to his foes—

“I once had sons, but now ha’e none,  
I bred them toiling sairly;  
And I wad bear them a’ again,  
And lose them a’ for Charlie.”

## TWO GREAT PREACHERS.

We are now to learn about two men who did a great deal to awaken the religious life of our people at a time when it seemed almost dead. Englishmen had been growing more and more wealthy; but they were also becoming more absorbed in business life, and what pleasures they had were mostly coarse and bad.

There is a great deal of drunkenness among us still, for which we ought to be very much ashamed; but in the middle of last century hard drinking was much more the custom than it is

to-day. The nobles, the middle classes, and the poorer classes all drank to excess. A famous writer of those days, Dr. Johnson, said that when he was a boy nearly all the well-to-do citizens of his native town, Lichfield, used to get drunk every night.

There were few healthy and sensible means of recreation and enjoyment. Cricket and football were hardly ever played; and most of the sports of those days were either quite childish or were cruel and debasing, such as cock-fighting.

People went to church on Sundays; but for the most part they went only because it was thought to be the proper thing to do, and because it was expected of all magistrates. The Dissenters had lost a good deal of the piety and fervour of their Puritan forefathers. So, if you looked in either at a church or a chapel, you would probably see only a thin congregation, and that those who were there did not behave as though they were intent on worshipping God.

Outside in the streets on a Sunday you would see numbers of tipsy men and women, while the children strayed about without anyone teaching them the truths of religion. It was not till 1781 that a Sunday-school was started. Then Robert Raikes of Gloucester opened in that city a Sunday-school for teaching children; and since then Sunday-schools have done a splendid work among the children of our land.

The sight of the bad habits of our people had long made thinking men sad; but it was not till the time of Wesley that much was done to improve them. About the year 1730 a young man named John Wesley, who was a student at the University of Oxford, began to think seriously about religion and about the bad lives of the people of that city. He gathered about him a small band of earnest young men to study the Bible and to talk and pray together. They were to give up all forms of amusement which they felt to be harmful, and were to use their spare time in visiting sick persons and prisoners.

John Wesley himself lived very strictly. He got up every morning at four o'clock: he refused to have his hair dressed and powdered, as was then the fashion, so that he might give to the poor the money which he thus saved. He and his followers used every possible method of making the most of their time and their opportunities. Hence they were jeeringly called Methodists by their fellow-students. Later on they became better known as Wesleyans, that is, followers of Wesley.

Among the little band of Methodists at Oxford there was also Charles Wesley, a young man of a gentler and more amiable character than his stern and strict elder brother. Charles Wesley, at a later time, wrote a great number of beautiful hymns. At Oxford, too, was George Whitefield, a wild, impul-

sive lad, who was to become the greatest preacher of that age. Under John Wesley's influence Whitefield became a strict Methodist. He fasted frequently, and often remained in prayer kneeling or lying on the cold ground all through the night.



The Rev John Wesley.

In 1735 the Wesleys and their comrades left Oxford, and John Wesley went to one of our North American colonies. There he carried out all his strict methods until he became very unpopular and had to return to England. Soon he felt more religious peace than he had known before, and began to

preach out of a full heart to congregations of the Church of England. He everywhere desired the more earnest people to form a "society" in the church, and to hold frequent meetings for prayer and confession of sins.

### TWO GREAT PREACHERS (*Continued*).

Wesley and others who joined him went about preaching most earnestly, and people wondered at the power of their words. Nearly all clergymen and ministers then read out their sermons in a very cold and lifeless way; but Wesley and Whitefield boldly spoke forth the words which came fresh to their lips. To help the movement, chapels were built as an aid to the life of the churches, for at first the Methodists or Wesleyans still formed part of the Church of England.

Whitefield took a far bolder step. He was prevented from preaching in the churches of Bristol because of the novelty of his views and the fervour of his style. So he turned his attention to the vast masses of people who never entered a church or a chapel. Noticing with sorrow the degraded state of the colliers at Kingswood near Bristol, he resolved to go and preach to them in the open air near their own cottages.

Standing on a hillside he preached to the colliers

from the text "Blessed are the poor in spirit, for theirs is the kingdom of heaven". He spoke to these poor ignorant men as a brother to brothers; and the earnestness and power of his words brought



The Rev. George Whitefield.

tears to many of their cheeks. These visits of his were repeated; his messages of mercy and love, and his calls to repentance often drew sobs and groans from hearts which before had been hard as stone.

When Whitefield went to London the same results followed. On Kennington Common and on Moorfield he preached to vast numbers of the lowest

class of Londoners. Sometimes he would go to a fair, and in the places which were usually given up to prize-fighting and drunkenness he would mount on a platform, or even on a barrel, and hold a large crowd spell-bound by his preaching. His voice was so powerful that it could be heard by a crowd of 30,000 persons.

His activity was wonderful. He often preached for forty hours every week. Many times he visited the chief towns of England and Scotland, and he crossed the Atlantic thirteen times to preach in our American colonies. Strange stories are told of the way in which he moved his hearers. Some would groan in despair, others would shout for joy, others again were so excited as to fall down in fits.

On one occasion in America a well-known man of determined character decided, before he went to hear Whitefield, that he would give nothing to the collection, which was for a cause of which he did not approve. After the first part of the sermon he felt that he must give the copper pieces in his pocket: as Whitefield's appeal went on, the man felt that he must give all his silver pieces too; and at the end he emptied into the plate all the money in his purse—coppers, silver, and gold.

Fortunately, the results of this wonderful preaching often lasted long after the first craze of excitement was over. Many of his hearers became changed men and women, and led better lives. At first Wesley

did not approve of open-air preaching, for he was still a strict churchman. But when the pulpits of churches were more and more closed against him, Wesley also took to preaching in the open-air. He was not so great an orator as Whitefield, but he was far better at making the work endure; for he had the power of guiding and controlling men.

So the Wesleyan movement went on, arousing enthusiasm, but also exciting vehement opposition. Wesley, Whitefield, and their followers were often attacked by ignorant and half savage rustics. Wesleyans were often ducked, stoned, and pelted with filth; but they believed in their work, and nothing would make them give it up. At first they were only a body of people *in* the Church of England, but later on they separated from it entirely, and for the last hundred years they have worshipped in chapels of their own.

Both John and Charles Wesley lived to a great age, and were revered and loved by all who knew them well. They and Whitefield started a great religious movement which has had great power over the people, especially in Wales and Cornwall. The Wesleyans are also very numerous in the United States and Canada. Even men who did not become Wesleyans were led to think more about religion. Thus, these preachers have made a great change for the better in the life of the British people.



## THE STORY OF JOSIAH WEDGWOOD.

Few men have made such a change in any trade or in their own county as Josiah Wedgwood. He was the youngest son of a poor potter at Burslem in Staffordshire. If you could have looked into the cottage where he was brought up, you would have said that nothing great would come out of that family. There were twelve other children to be clothed and fed, and when the father died they were often oppressed by want. The child had scarcely any schooling, for that was almost unknown among the poor in those days. At eleven years of age he was apprenticed to his elder brother, who had become a potter; but a severe attack of small-pox left him too weak to keep on with the hard work of the trade.

Fortunately, he was very fond of drawing, and of any work which required beautiful patterns. After a time he became quite skilled in this part of his calling, and he set up for himself in a small building thatched with straw, where he kept on making all sorts of ornamental articles. Next he hired a second and larger building, and there he began to try to ornament the potter's clay, and make it finer than was done before. Up to that time the clay had been turned out by the Staffordshire potters in a very rough

way, so that it was not only ugly to look at, but it broke quite easily.

Wedgwood took care to get the best possible clay, and by working it more carefully he not only made it stronger, but also of finer quality, and more suited to ornamentation. On it he traced his elegant patterns, so that people began to buy his ware more and more. At last he was able to hire a third and large factory, where he made some beautiful cream-coloured ware. He was wise enough to send some dishes of this to Queen Charlotte, who was so pleased with it that she ordered a complete set of it for her own table, and commanded that it should be called "Queen's Ware".

Wedgwood was not satisfied even with this success, but went on making trials of new kinds of ware. He took care to get vases of the old Romans and Etruscans, and to do his best to copy them and make patterns or figures exactly like those which had been made two or three thousand years before. He also got cups and vases from China and the east, and copied them successfully.

He engaged the cleverest workmen, and even employed famous artists and engravers to make designs for him. So that by using the best kinds of clay, or by mixing them very carefully, and by working them in the best ways, he was able at last to make beautiful vases and small pieces of sculpture.

Wedgwood had now become the richest man in

Burslem; and the fame of his ware had spread not only over England but over all Europe. He was wise enough to see that his trade would increase immensely if he could get his ware to the seaports more cheaply. In those days the roads were generally very bad; and in winter time carts often sank axle deep in mud. One canal had been already made in Lancashire by the great engineer, Brindley; and Wedgwood wanted another canal to be made from near Liverpool to Burslem, and then on to the river Trent.

At length the new canal, called the Grand Trunk Canal, was begun, and Wedgwood had the honour of cutting the first sod. There was much joy in Burslem, and a sheep was roasted whole in the market-place. When the canal was completed it made the carriage of goods cheap and easy from the potteries of Staffordshire to Liverpool, Hull, and Birmingham.

English pottery began to be sold more and more all over the world, and the neighbourhood of Burslem and Stoke-on-Trent increased in population and wealth. Wedgwood in 1771 removed his works from Burslem to a new village which he called Etruria. There he made a splendid factory, and around it he built cottages for his work-people. He died there in 1795, much respected for the good use which he made of his wealth.

## THE STORY OF CLIVE.

## . 1. CLIVE GOES TO INDIA—THE SIEGE OF ARCOT

In 1745 it seemed as though the power of England was in danger from a few thousands of untrained Highlanders. Yet within fifteen years of that revolt



Robert, Lord Clive

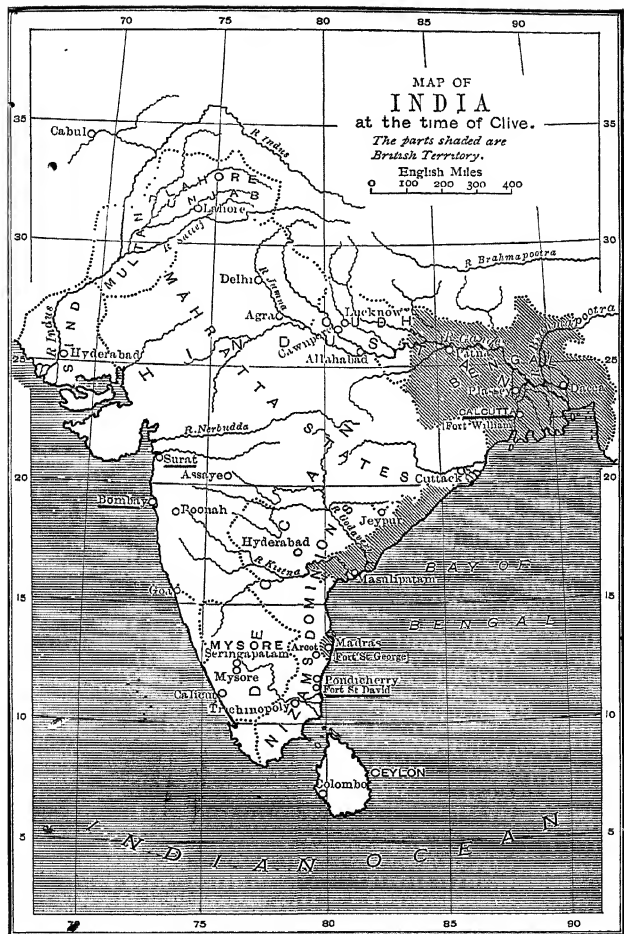
we acquired a mighty Empire across the seas, owing to the exploits of Clive and Wolfe and the organizing genius of our great statesman, the elder Pitt. The lives of these three men will enable us to glance at the events which laid the foundations of British rule in India and Canada.

Before the time of Clive our countrymen in India held only a few factories and trading-stations on or

near the coasts. These were Surat, Bombay, Fort St. George (now known as Madras), and Fort William (now known as Calcutta). These stations were not what we call colonies. Bombay belonged to the British crown, but the other three stations belonged to an important trading company, the English East India Company, which paid rent to the native rulers. It was the courage and genius of Clive which soon made this struggling little trading company the possessor of large and wealthy provinces.

Robert Clive was born in 1725 at Market Drayton, in Shropshire. All through his school life he showed a daring, obstinate, and masterful spirit which nearly drove his parents and teachers to despair. He once frightened all the people of his native town by climbing up the church steeple, and coolly sitting on a stone spout near the top. Not knowing what to do with him, his parents at last sent him out as a clerk in the service of the East India Company.

In those days the voyage to India often took a year, and Clive's journey to Madras took more than a year. The intense heat tried his health, the life at the desk chafed his active spirit, and he soon grew homesick. Twice he carefully loaded a pistol, and tried to take his life. Each time the pistol missed fire, though the bullet sped forth when he turned the weapon away from himself and fired towards the sea. Astonished at this strange fact, he exclaimed that he must certainly be destined



to do something great; and events were soon to prove this.

The French were then more powerful in the East Indies than we were. In one of their inroads they even captured Madras and took all the English prisoners. Among them was Clive, who managed to escape in the disguise of a native, and became an ensign in the Company's little army. That was his first training as a soldier; and he soon showed that he had the courage, quickness, and promptness which make a good officer.

Before long, peace was made between England and France, and Madras was restored to the English Company; but the ambition of Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, again brought the English and French to war in the South of India. This ambitious man had formed the plan of playing off the rival native rulers one against the other, and by this means he meant to make his countrymen supreme in India. The bravery of the French soldiers scattered in flight ten times their number of native troops, and the rule of Dupleix in the south of India seemed in 1750 to be firmly established.

But the genius of Clive soon changed the whole aspect of affairs. He persuaded the English East India Company to send help instantly to one of the native princes against the French, and to seize the important town of Arcot. He led his little force of

500 men quickly towards its walls. Undaunted by a terrific storm of thunder and rain which burst over them, Clive and his men struggled on, and the defenders were so astonished at foes coming against them in such a tempest that they fled, and left Arcot as the prize to Clive's valour.

An army of 10,000 natives and a few French threatened him in the weak walls of Arcot, but Clive's daring spirit again nerved his scanty band to resist these overwhelming numbers. His native troops, called sepoys, showed that they would face even starvation itself. When food ran short, they begged Clive to give all the grain and rice to the British soldiers, who needed more nourishment. As for themselves, they said that the water strained away from the rice would be enough just to sustain life.

At last the enemy made a desperate attack. They began by sending elephants at the charge to burst in the gates; but, maddened by the shot which Clive's men poured upon them, they turned tail, carrying death and disaster into the ranks behind them. An attack of the natives on another part of the wall was repulsed, when Clive, to encourage his men, worked a cannon himself against his assailants. The steadfast bravery of his men beat back every onset. Arcot was saved; and after the enemy retreated, they suffered another overthrow from the dashing young English commander.



## 2. THE BLACK HOLE—PLASSEY.

This and other exploits made Clive famous; and he was rightly looked on as the greatest English commander since the time of Marlborough. His father was at last heard to say that after all the booby had something in him. On his return to England to restore his shattered health, he was greeted as the saviour of the Company's rule in India. The directors offered him a sword set in diamonds; but he modestly refused to accept it unless a similar gift was made to his superior officer. After a time of rest he returned to India, where his vigorous hand was needed more than ever.

The Company's settlement at Fort William, now known as Calcutta, had been seized by the Nabob Surajah-Dowlah, who then ruled over Bengal. This fickle and cruel young despot, annoyed at the growing power of the English, had suddenly marched a great army against Fort William and seized it. The English prisoners, 146 in number, had the promise that their lives would be spared; but their fiendish captors shut them all up in a narrow cell called the Black Hole. Stifled by heat and by the foul air, they struggled in agony to get near the few small air-holes, and begged the native guards to fire on them to put them out of their misery. The guards only mocked at their torments. So this awful night wore on, the groans getting fewer and feebler, until

the next morning only twenty-three ghastly figures staggered from that charnel-house. The rest had perished of heat, thirst, and suffocation.

Clive sailed from the Madras coast to Fort William on the Hoogley, to punish Surajah-Dowlah for this frightful crime. The British force was small, and Clive stooped to oriental tricks to compass the despot's ruin. He encouraged his chief general, Meer Jaffeer, to betray his master by leading over part of the troops to Clive's side. The general hesitated when it came to the point, and Clive's little force of 3000 men stood face to face at Plassey with 60,000 foes. Even Clive's stout heart was for a brief space appalled at the danger. He went apart to a grove to think, and at the end of an hour's musing he made up his mind to fight at once.

The few British guns poured in a destructive fire against the fifty cumbrous cannon and the crowded ranks opposite them. Then Clive, at the right moment, ordered a general charge. It swept away the dense and confused masses of their foes, and in a few minutes the plain was covered with torrents of fugitives, horse, foot, and elephants flying before the thin lines of red-coats. The camp, the baggage, cannon, and treasure of their foes were the spoils of the victors; and the great province of Bengal was conquered by this one blow (1757).

Meer Jaffeer, who had joined Clive only when

the victory seemed certain, was rewarded by being



After Plassey—Meeting of Clive and Meer Jaffer.

placed on the throne of Surajah-Dowlah; but the real rulers were Clive and our East India Company.

For these exploits the young English leader received the titles of Lord Clive and Baron of Plassey.

• Other successes were gained over the Dutch and the French; and the capture of Pondicherry in 1761 made our power as supreme in the south as it was in Bengal. Enormous sums of money were showered on Clive; and the lad who, fifteen years before, had arrived in India almost penniless, now made a very large fortune. He was later on very much blamed for accepting so many gifts and for collecting so much wealth; but in the East it was usual for victors to receive these rewards and to gain tracts of land for themselves. At any rate, Clive was not miserly with his wealth, but sent handsome sums home to his relatives and poor friends.

In the later part of his life in India, Clive did much to improve the government of the Company's provinces, and to prevent the greed and the frauds of officials. Thus, in place of the terrible tyranny of Surajah-Dowlah and other despots, many millions of Hindoos gained something like good and just government. Both Britons and Hindoos, then, ought to be proud and thankful for the great deeds of Clive both in war and in peace.

## THE STORY OF GENERAL WOLFE AND THE TAKING OF QUEBEC.

When we studied the life of Clive we saw that for some time the French appeared certain of becoming masters of India. At almost the same period they were making great and successful efforts to gain nearly the whole of North America. The French had long had possession of Canada, that is, all the land along the course of the River St. Lawrence and to the north of the Great Lakes. The French also held, or claimed to hold, the lands along the course of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. But this did not satisfy the ambition of Montcalm, the French governor of Canada, who formed great plans of building forts along the course of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. He hoped by these means to shut in the English settlers, who then, it must be remembered, only had the colonies on the coast of the Atlantic.

Montcalm also gained over many of the fierce tribes of the Red Indians to help him to subdue the English settlers; and perhaps he would have succeeded in America like Dupleix in India, if in both cases an English hero had not appeared to baffle French designs. Clive worsted Dupleix in India; Wolfe overcame Montcalm in North America.

James Wolfe was born in Kent in 1726. He grew up to be a shy, modest young man, of a rather

weak and delicate frame, and he ever showed great kindliness and modesty of spirit, never desiring to force his way to the front by unworthy means. Indeed, his was a brave and generous nature which gained him devoted friends. He early entered the army, and distinguished himself by his bravery in the wars against France, as also at the battle of Culloden. He afterwards commanded a regiment which was quartered in the Highlands for the purpose of maintaining peace and order. Later on he showed his bravery in the war in North America (1758); but the generals who commanded our forces there were incapable, and our troops were often defeated.

Matters were soon changed when younger and abler men were appointed to command there. Among these was Wolfe, who was selected by Pitt for his vigour, energy of mind, and powers of awakening enthusiasm. Three British armies were to attack the French in North America. Wolfe, with 8000 men, sailed up the broad and noble river St. Lawrence to attack Quebec, 1759.

The city of Quebec stands on a lofty cliff which overhangs that stately river. Many streams, which in our land would be thought large rivers, pour their waters into the St. Lawrence. Some miles below Quebec, near one of these streams, Wolfe landed his men; but, in trying to cross its rocky bed near a great waterfall, his men were driven back by the French.

Other attempts failed, and the French were so strongly posted in and around Quebec that it seemed impossible to dislodge them. Wolfe fell ill, and his forces were sadly wasted away by defeat and sickness. Still, he and his officers did not give up the attempt. He knew that higher up the St. Lawrence above Quebec there were steep cliffs, which at one point were indented by a small watercourse. Wolfe thought that if his men could quietly make their way up at this point by a steep winding path, they would take the enemy by surprise.

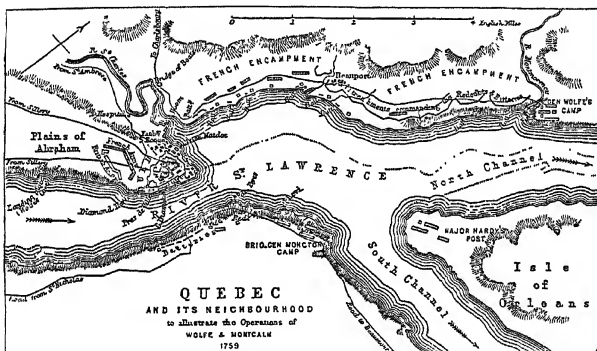
The ships took his surviving troops up the great river to a place some distance above Quebec, on the side opposite to the city. He tried to mislead the enemy as to the real point of attack, while he secretly collected boats so as to land his army at the foot of the little gulley or watercourse.

One night in September, 1759, all was ready. The oars were muffled so as to make no noise which would alarm the French; but there were so few boats that Wolfe's small force had to cross in two divisions. While he was anxiously waiting, Wolfe repeated to his officers nearly the whole of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, and said that he would rather be the poet who wrote that, than have the fame of conquering the French the next day.

At last all his men were landed, and began to climb the cliffs by the steep and narrow path. They

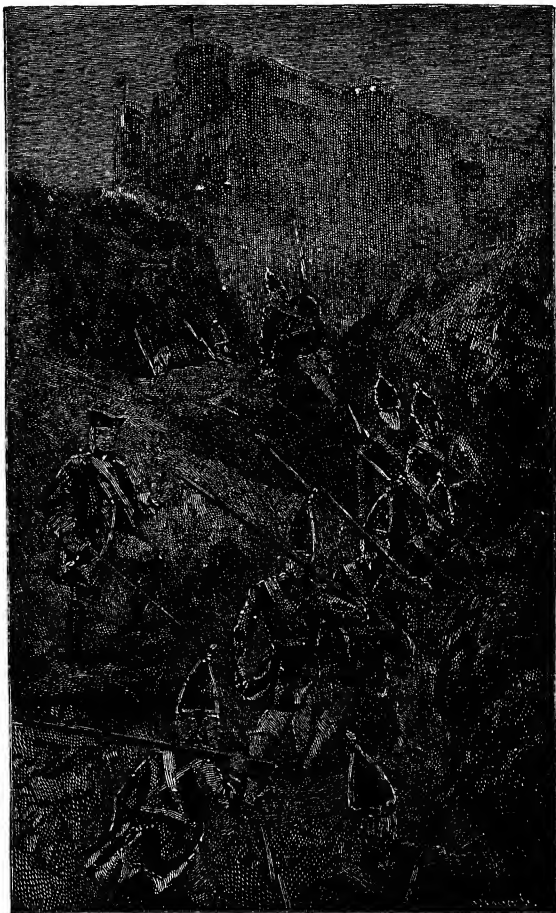
reached the top without the French taking alarm; and they even dragged one small cannon up. When dawn broke, the French found nearly 4000 British troops on the Heights of Abraham just outside Quebec.

Montcalm hastily brought his men up for battle,



and they fought as bravely as ever; but Wolfe's men were all trained soldiers, and now that they were on even terms with their foes they soon gained ground from them. As Wolfe was cheering on his troops, he was severely wounded in two places. The dying hero was carried to the rear; and when he heard the shout "They run", he raised himself on his elbow and eagerly asked "Who run?" On hearing the answer "The French run", he uttered his last words, "I die contented". The French





The Night Attack on Quebec.

commander also perished in this battle, which at once overthrew all his great designs.

Quebec soon surrendered, and a little later the rest of Canada submitted to us. That great country has ever since been one of our most splendid colonies, and the French and English there now live peacefully side by side. On the promenade at Quebec there is a statue in honour of those brave and able men, Wolfe and Montcalm. It bears an inscription to this effect:

“Their valour gave them a united death,  
History has given them a united fame,  
Posterity, a united monument.

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### WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.

The great orator and statesman, called the elder Pitt, to distinguish him from his famous son, was born in Cornwall, in 1708. In his youth he entered the army, but his talents fitted him more for Parliament than for the battlefield. He entered Parliament as member for Old Sarum, a tiny hamlet close to Salisbury.

He soon showed that he was a splendid speaker. His noble figure, his powerful yet musical voice, and his rapid vehement style of speaking carried his audience along with him. Moreover, men felt that he meant what he said. As he once whispered

to a Member of Parliament, "When once I am up on my feet everything that is in my mind comes out" His attacks against Walpole partly led to the fall of that great Minister in 1742; and the Duchess of Marlborough, who had hated Walpole, left £10,000 to Pitt for his defence of the laws of England.

After Walpole's death, there followed a time of confusion in public affairs; and though George II. bitterly hated Pitt, yet when the difficulties of our country seemed overwhelming, he became the most important of the king's Ministers (1757).

Times were indeed very serious for our nation. Scotland was still discontented; and many people, even in England, still longed for the return of the Stuarts. In 1756 war had broken out with France, and at first our men were beaten in several encounters. Minorca, which then belonged to us, was captured by the French; and our Admiral Byng, who did not do his utmost to prevent its capture, was shot by order of a court-martial. Englishmen had begun to feel that their day was past, and one of the chief statesmen exclaimed in despair, "We are no longer a nation!"

As soon as Pitt became chief Minister, he aroused the people out of their despair. "Be one people!" he cried; "forget everything but the public welfare. I set you the example." His fiery speeches and the boldness of his acts soon made Britons feel

more confident. An officer once said that none who went to talk with him could help feeling braver for it.

When a great man like Pitt begins to control



William Pitt, first Earl of Chatham.

public affairs, there is sure to be a change for the better. He determined to do his utmost to help the King of Prussia, Frederick the Great, who was bravely struggling against the French, Austrians, and Russians. Pitt could not then send many men to help Frederick, but he helped him with money, for he saw that while France was thus kept busy in fighting Prussia, her colonies would the more easily fall to us.

THE EARL OF CHATHAM (*Continued*).

Pitt did more than all the soldiers had done for keeping the Highlands quiet. They had vainly tried to crush the spirit of the Highlanders, but Pitt hit upon the happy thought of enlisting the Highlanders as soldiers, so that their courage might be used for their country; and they soon showed their bravery in India and Canada.

Pitt also chose young and energetic men to lead the new enterprises, and we have seen how wise he was in the choice of Wolfe for the conquest of Canada. This is one of the marks of a great ruler or statesman. He cannot do everything himself; but if he is a great man, he will pick out the right men and set them to whatever work they can do best.

Soon there came news, not of defeats, but of victories, from all parts. Bengal was conquered in 1757. Two years later came the capture of Quebec; and there were two victories over the French nearer home. In 1756 England was in such despair that George II. had even thought of bringing Hanoverian troops over, to help to protect England from the French. When the king died in 1760, he left England successful in all points, having conquered a great colonial empire from her rival. Very much of this was due to the energy of Pitt, and to the

courage which he breathed into all who came near him.

• The next king, George III., did not like Pitt, and the great statesman resigned his office. A little later he was called back to the Ministry; but it was only for a short time. He did his best to prevent the foolish acts which turned our kinsmen in North America against the mother country; and in his later years, when he was made Earl of Chatham, he still raised his powerful voice on behalf of friendship towards those colonists. "You cannot conquer America," he cried. "If I were an American, I would never lay down my arms, never, never, never!"

The end of Pitt's life was very sad. He had always been a martyr to gout, and had made many of his finest speeches with his limbs swathed in flannels so as to ease the pain. Now it had grown much worse; but he wished to speak once more on the question of America. Though his end was drawing near, he was carried to the House of Lords, and uttered a few feeble words. It was too much for him, and he fell back in a swoon. He was carried home, and died five weeks later (May, 1778).

When he left office in 1761, our country was everywhere victorious. When he died, our mistakes had banded nearly all the world against us. We see then how much one great man can do for a

nation; and how his vigour and wisdom may be missed when he no longer guides its affairs.

In one respect his example lived on. Before his time, some of the king's Ministers had thought it quite a fit thing to take large sums or bounties from the nation's money. Pitt was the first who refused to touch a penny which was not fairly and openly his by right. He was a patriot, and he saw that a land could never be strong where the governors were not quite straightforward in money matters. Since his time there has been far more honour and honesty in public life than there had been before.

It is because he brought back victory to our flag and honour to our public life that Pitt earned the honourable name of the Great Commoner.

## THE STORY OF WARREN HASTINGS.

Warren Hastings, who was to become one of the greatest of our governors in India, was born at Daylesford in Worcestershire (1732). His ancestors had once been wealthy, and had owned the great house and estate at Daylesford; but they had gradually come down in the world, till the little Warren was sent to the village school. There he showed great talent and industry, and he loved to hear tales of the greatness of his ancestors and how

they had fought for the king. At the age of ten, as he was lying by the stream on a bright summer's



Warren Hastings.

day, it came into his mind that he would be a great man and would win back the old estate for his family.

At first there seemed little chance of his doing this.' He was left to the care of a distant relative



who did not want to be burdened with him. So, as in the case of Clive, young Hastings was sent off to India as a clerk in the service of the East India Company.

Exciting events soon happened to him. When Surajah Dowlah marched against Calcutta, some of the English took refuge in an island near the mouth of the Hoogley. Among them was the young Hastings; and as he was bright and clever, he was sent secretly to watch events at the Nabob's court. There he barely escaped with his life from the Nabob's vengeance; but, after the battle of Plassey, Clive, hearing of the skill of the young clerk, made him agent at the court of the new Nabob, Meer Jaffier.

Soon Hastings rose to an important post in the government of Bengal, and he protected the natives from the greed of many officers of the East India Company.

In 1770 Bengal suffered from a frightful famine, such as happened, and sometimes still happens, whenever the Monsoon fails, for then hardly any rice or corn can grow, and the people starve. This disaster happened in that year, when, for month after month, no rain fell to freshen the thirsty soil. The sun beat down on parched fields and empty ponds, and the peasants saw their tiny hoards of food vanish away. Then they themselves rushed to the rivers to drink, or lay down to meet death

from sheer hunger and exhaustion. The water of the Ganges was putrid with corpses, and its fish and waterfowl became uneatable. More than half of the people died; for there were then no railways to bring food from other parts, and no canals from which water could be drawn to irrigate the fields. These have since been made by British engineers, and a famine in India is not so terrible now as it was then.

Three years after this dreadful scourge, Warren Hastings became Governor-general of India. He was the first who held that office and who ruled British India partly under the control of our Parliament. But its control was very slight, and the first Governor-general did several things which would not be allowed now.

One of these was as follows. He let out on hire British troops to a native prince who wanted to conquer some of his neighbour's lands. On success crowning this disgraceful enterprise, a large sum was paid to the East India Company by the conqueror; but a fertile province was made desolate by British troops for the sake of gain to the Company. This and other acts brought Hastings into trouble later on.

But in the years 1776-1783 our difficulties were so very great in America, in Europe, and also in India, that Hastings could not be spared. He had to face the great and growing power of the

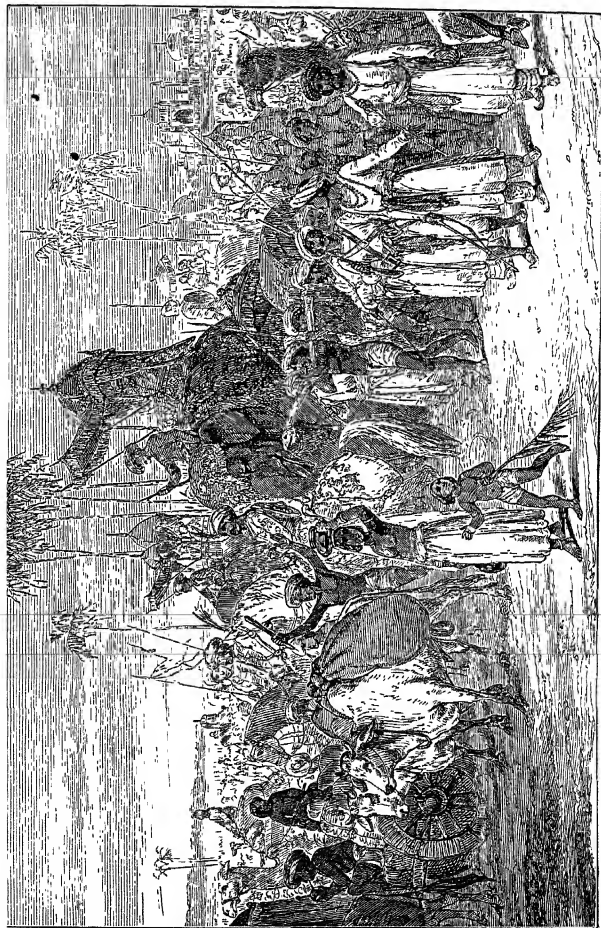
Mahrattas. These were bands of fierce and warlike horsemen who swept over the plains carrying off plunder. They had founded some important States in India, and now they were likely to be helped by the French. The position was critical, for if French and Mahrattas had been allowed to act together against us, we should probably have lost our hold on India.

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#### WARREN HASTINGS (*Continued*).

Danger acts as a spur to great and manly natures, and Hastings determined to strike at once and strike hard at the Mahrattas. He raised more sepoys, he made an alliance with a native prince, and sent an army to the West of India to attack the Mahrattas before the French could help them. At first our men were beaten, but finally they took the very strong castle of Gwalior, and for the time being brought the Mahrattas to accept terms of peace. News came from the south of India which led Warren Hastings to offer peace on easy terms to these valiant foes.

A powerful native ruler in southern India, seeing our troops busy far away to the north, seized the opportunity to send an army of 90,000 men against Madras. A small British force was attacked by immense numbers of the enemy. Stoutly they beat off the native foot-soldiers and clouds of horse-



A native Indian Army on the march

men; but at last they were overpowered and were almost all slain.

On came the victors, believing that they would sweep the English into the sea. Our countrymen in Madras could see the night sky aglow with the flames of burning villages, and in terror they sought refuge behind the walls of Fort St. George. Such were the tidings sent off to Calcutta, and a swift ship, flying before the south-west gales, brought the news of our disasters to the Governor-general in very few days.

Warren Hastings did not despair. He sent away all possible troops to the south to meet this new and formidable foe, and with them large supplies of money for the expenses of the new war. Our men were in time to meet the native troops before a French fleet arrived. Two victories were won over the dense array of native soldiers, and our rule in the south was saved. In 1783 peace was made between us and all our enemies; and our dominion in the south of India was left as large as it had been before this war.

The vigour of Warren Hastings saved our rule in India, but his conduct was marred by some unjust acts. He had been in sore need of money for the expedition to save Madras; and, not knowing how to get it by fair means, he forced the ruler of Benares to pay a very large sum. What was even worse, he forced the Princesses of Oude to give up

their concealed treasures, and he had their officers tortured to force them to give it up.

The English East India Company had had claims in both these cases, but nothing can excuse the cruelty and wickedness of its Governor's action, in wringing these large sums from almost helpless native governments.

In 1785 Warren Hastings returned to England. He left our dominion there far larger than he found it when he first became Governor-general; and on his return home he received the thanks of King George III., and the applause of the people.

But soon there came a change. He was put on his trial for his acts of extortion in India. It was the most famous trial that has ever taken place in our country. Westminster Hall was crowded with the greatest, the noblest, and the fairest of the land; and so great was the public interest that fifty guineas were paid for a single seat there. Burke, the finest orator of that age, accused Warren Hastings in a noble speech which at times brought tears to many an eye. Sheridan also made a brilliant speech against him. But the interest died away as the trial went on for months and years. At last, after seven years (1795), Hastings was acquitted; for men by that time had come to feel that his actions after all had saved our rule in India, and the lives of thousands of our countrymen.

Warren Hastings lived on to an old age at the

estate at Daylesford, which he bought back for his family, thus at last realizing the dream of his boyhood. In his closing years he often occupied himself with trying to rear Indian plants and animals, and he died in 1818, having won the reputation of being the second founder of British rule in India.

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### COOK'S VOYAGES.

#### 1. SOUNDING THE ST. LAWRENCE.—FIRST VOYAGE TO THE PACIFIC.

The famous seaman and discoverer, Captain Cook, was born in 1728 at a village not far from Whitby. His father was a Yorkshire farm labourer, who had nine children, and had a hard struggle to bring up his large family. His son James, who was to become so famous, was sent to serve a tradesman near Whitby; but his love of the sea led him to take service on one of the sailing vessels engaged in the coal trade on the east coast. He worked so well that in course of time he became mate of his ship.

In those days seamen were often carried off by the press-gang, and were forced to serve in the royal navy. Once, when with his ship on the Thames, Cook thought this would happen to him, for it was a time of war, and the press-gangs were very active. To avoid being seized, Cook of his own accord enlisted in the royal navy. Here again he worked so well

that he soon became master of a small gun-vessel which was sent to help General Wolfe in Canada.

One of Cook's duties there was to sound the river St. Lawrence. The French sent Indians to catch the daring captain; and once they chased his boat so closely, that Cook had barely time to throw himself out of it, and save his valuable papers and charts. After the conquest of Canada was completed, Cook was employed in surveying the coasts of Newfoundland, so that fishing-boats might know where the dangerous rocks and reefs were, and be able to avoid them.

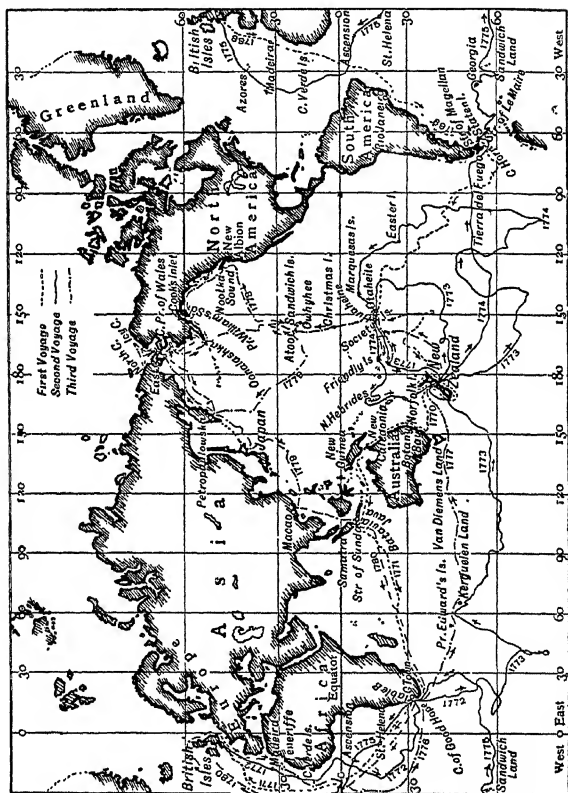
But higher honours were in store for the son of the Yorkshire labourer. His strong sense of duty, his quickness of eye, his good temper, and his steadfast courage fitted him for a far more important command, which was to lead to famous results.

In 1769, astronomers very much wanted to observe the passage of the planet Venus across the sun. To make sure of seeing it, they sent expeditions to many parts of the world, in the expectation that, if invisible at one place, it would be visible at another. They wanted one of the expeditions to be sent to the Pacific Ocean.

They asked our government for a ship to take them to the required place, and to make geographical and other discoveries on the way thither. Cook was fixed on as the best suited to command such an expedition, because he was not only a brave and



skilful seaman, but a pleasant man to get on with.



The World (on Mercator's Projection), showing Captain Cook's Voyages (1768-1780).

So Cook, in company with several learned men, set sail for the Pacific in a small ship called the

*Endeavour*. He rounded Cape Horn, entered the Pacific, and made his way to the lovely island of Otaheite or Tahiti.

When Cook and some of his companions went on shore, the natives came forward in wonder. "The first who approached us," wrote Cook, "crouched so low that he almost crept upon his hands and knees." But when they received presents of beads and other trinkets, they soon began to be very friendly, and behaved like naughty children. They stole many of the objects which they admired. Among other things, one of the valuable instruments was secretly carried off, and not till one of their chiefs was seized was it given back.

But these and other difficulties were got over with little trouble, owing to Cook's kindness and firmness. The observation of the passage of Venus was a complete success. Other gains to knowledge came from the collection of the plants of the island by the scientific men of the ship, and their observation of the customs of the natives. Their strange dances, and the boldness with which they swam through or under the roughest surf, excited the wonder and admiration of our sailors; and after a pleasant stay on the coral shores, and amidst the leafy groves of Tahiti, Cook gave the order to depart.

After sighting several islands, Cook at length arrived off the coast of New Zealand. This had

been discovered long before by a Dutchman named Tasman, who had also discovered the south of Australia; but the Dutch had made no use of either discovery. The natives of New Zealand were hostile and defiant; and as Cook could do little or nothing with them, he sailed away, after giving the name of Poverty Bay to the place where he had touched land. He sailed right round the coasts of New Zealand, and found the strait, now known as Cook Strait, which separates the North Island from the South. After proclaiming that New Zealand was British territory, Cook sailed away to the west.

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## 2. END OF THE FIRST VOYAGE.—SECOND AND THIRD VOYAGES.

The next land which Cook sighted was a part of Australia, or New Holland, as it was then called. Sailing up that coast, he first landed in a bay which was surrounded by shrubs growing in tropical profusion. Hence he and his botanists called it Botany Bay. The natives were so stolid and stupid that they scarcely left off their fishing to look at the ship's boat; but two of them finally came forward and attacked the boat's crew, till Cook ordered small shot to be fired at them. Then they ran away, and no offers of beads or trinkets brought any natives back again. A few miles farther north

Cook sighted a splendid natural harbour, which he named Port Jackson. Its banks were then silent and deserted. Now they are gay with the beautiful villas of Sydney, and its waters bear the ships of all nations.

While sailing on far to the north, the *Endeavour* ran aground on a reef, and with much difficulty she was got into a river, which now bears the name of the ship. During the time occupied in repairs, the crew saw for the first time the strange creature called a kangaroo. One of the sailors thus funnily described it at its first appearance: "He was as large as a one-gallon keg, and very like it. He had horns and wings, yet he crept so slowly through the grass that if I had not been afeard I might have touched him." To the men's surprise the kangaroo, when chased, leaped away as fast as a greyhound.

At last the repairs were completed, and the ship was ready for sea again. After more exciting dangers from reefs, she reached the north point of the coast, which Cook named Cape York. As the whole of the coast seemed to him rather like that of South Wales, he called it New South Wales, and annexed it all to the British crown.

After many sufferings from privation and pestilence, Captain Cook and the few who survived reached England (1771), and received a splendid welcome. In this voyage, which lasted three years, he had made great discoveries, besides peacefully

gaining for his country the right to hold New Zealand and the best parts of Australia.

A little later, Cook made a second voyage round the world. It was mainly to find out whether there was a great continent near the south pole, and he proved that there was no land there of any great extent. Icebergs and waterspouts were nearly fatal to the ship; but at last he made the coast of New Zealand. After sowing some seeds there and leaving some goats to run wild, he visited some of the islands in the Pacific where he had touched before, and received a friendly greeting from the natives. The rest of this long voyage was weary and uninteresting.

Cook's third great voyage was to make discoveries in the Antarctic Ocean, and then to seek for a passage through the Arctic Ocean by way of Behring Straits. After a long voyage in the southern sea, he sailed through the middle of the Pacific, discovering many groups of islands. Everywhere the natives were astonished at the ship and all its cargo. In some small islands, where there were no land creatures but birds, the natives asked Cook whether his pigs and goats were birds; and elsewhere the astonishment was great when Cook landed his horse and rode round the island.

At all the islands there was trouble from the thievish habits of the natives; but on the whole he was received better at the Sandwich Islands than



The Death of Captain Cook.

anywhere else. There the people fell on their faces when he landed, and loaded his men with food.

Cook next sailed on to the north, but the near approach of winter forbade any attempt at forcing a way into the Arctic Ocean, and he sailed back to the Sandwich Islands, hoping to winter there. The natives of the island at which he now arrived thought that he was one of their gods; for there was an old saying that one of their gods would return on a floating island bearing cocoanut trees and swine and dogs. They feasted Cook and his men for days until some began to doubt whether he was a god, while all complained that his lean and hungry sailors ate too much, and were growing sleek and fat on their gifts.

Quarrels became more frequent. English goods were stolen, and at last one of Cook's boats was stolen away from its moorings by a skilful swimmer. Cook went to complain of this and other acts, but blows were given and returned. A native called out "It is war", and an attack was made on the party. Cook retreated to the boats, but his men were overpowered, and Cook was murdered before the boats could row to his help. His limbs were sought for by many of the natives, who still thought that he might perhaps be their god.

Such was the unfortunate end of this brave man and explorer, cut off by the blows of frenzied savages in the prime of his life and at the height of his

reputation. Beginning life as the son of a Yorkshire labourer, he ended it full of renown, as one of the great discoverers of the world; and his name appears on many coasts from New Zealand to the Arctic Ocean.

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## THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

### 1. THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR.

In previous lessons we have seen how Warren Hastings extended our authority in India, and how Captain Cook gained for us new possessions in the far-off Pacific. In this and the next lesson we shall learn about the loss of our chief colonies in North America.

Very many years before the time of which we are writing, Englishmen had settled on the Atlantic coast of North America, and England possessed thirteen colonies there. The most important of these were Virginia, Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts. In course of time the colonies became powerful, and disputes arose between them and the British government. The worst dispute was on the subject of taxation: it arose in the following manner.

There had been, as we have seen, a long war between the English and the French in North America, which ended with the conquest of Canada by our troops. As this war had given safety to our



North American colonists, the British government resolved to make them bear some of its cost; and perhaps the colonists would have done so, had they



been wisely treated in other respects. But our government also interfered with their trade and their customs duties; and when the colonists resisted, it gave way on some points, but resolved to keep a small duty on tea imported into those colonies.

Our Ministers wanted to show that England had the right to tax the colonists; while the colonists denied that our Parliament had any right to tax those who did not send members to Westminster.

So when a few cargoes of tea were sent across the Atlantic to Boston, some men of that city disguised themselves as Red Indians, boarded the ships, and threw all the tea overboard. This outrage annoyed our government, and it ordered the port of Boston to be closed. Matters went from bad to worse, until the colonists began to raise militiamen and prepare for war with the British government.

The first fight was at Lexington (1775), when a number of militiamen, under cover of hedges, poured a deadly fire on a small body of English troops as they were marching along a lane. Our men lost heavily, and the colonists, encouraged by this success and by the small numbers of our troops then in North America, persevered in the struggle.

The militia of the colonists now tried to blockade the British soldiers in Boston, by occupying a hill outside the city, called Bunker's Hill. Our men marched out to drive them away, but the colonists were fine marksmen, and fired steadily from behind earthworks on the red-coats as they marched up the slope. Twice our men were beaten back by the storm of bullets, and it seemed that they must lose the fight; but yet a third time they mounted that fatal slope, and this time they drove before them

the militia, whose bullets were nearly all gone. Our men lost nearly half their number in this fierce struggle at Bunker's Hill (1775).

The American colonists now gave the command of their troops to a brave and determined soldier,



The British Advance at Bunker's Hill.

George Washington. He came of an old family in Virginia, and had long shown himself to be a man of honour, keen to see what ought to be done, and prompt in carrying out his plans. He was a man of few words, but they were always words of wisdom and prudence; and everyone felt sure that he would never use his position for selfish ends. This was the secret of George Washington's power over his countrymen, who have ever regarded him as the founder of their independence.

2. THE COLONIES DECLARE AND ACHIEVE  
INDEPENDENCE.

The American colonists sadly needed a leader like Washington, for the different colonies were very jealous of each other, and many of their officers were at first openly disobedient to the commander, until they came to respect and fear him for his virtues and his strength of will. His army was soon able to compel the British troops to leave Boston. They then retired to New York, where they received reinforcements from Europe. Many of the new troops who fought on the British side were Germans hired by our government to fight against Englishmen. This and other acts further disgusted the colonists, until at last the men who represented the thirteen colonies met in a united Congress, and declared that they would henceforth be entirely independent of the British Crown (1776). They then and there gave to their lands the name of *The United States of America*.<sup>1</sup>

For a short time the fortune of war favoured the British. Canada remained loyal to us; and an attack which the Americans made on Quebec was a complete failure. Though Washington held his own for a short time, yet his army was quite broken up by a British success at Brandywine Creek. It

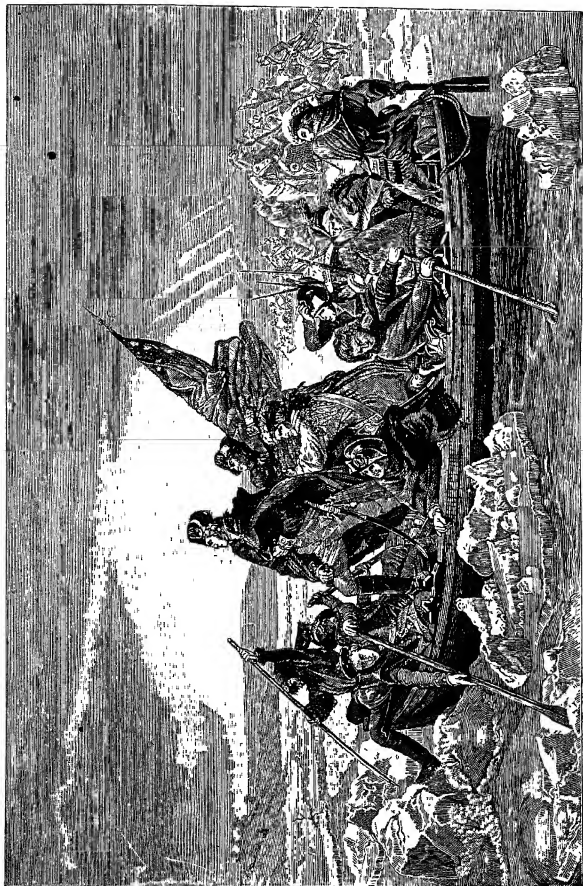
<sup>1</sup>At that time their people numbered only about two and a half millions; but now the States are thirty-eight in number and their population is about eighty millions.

was a time of great trial for the American cause; and but for Washington's splendid courage and patience the American army would probably have gone to pieces. Even as it was, many of his militiamen deserted and went home after the defeat, and others did the same as soon as their time of service was up. Many of those who remained with the colours were shoeless, half starved, and mutinous. In fact, it needed all Washington's powers of persuasion and command to keep his troops together, through the winter months, in Forge Valley near Philadelphia.

If the English generals had acted vigorously and well together, they might perhaps have ended the struggle before France helped the Americans. But as our generals did not work well together, they let the opportunity slip by, and one of them suffered a terrible reverse. He was marching south from Canada towards New York, when he was gradually surrounded by the militia of the States, and had to surrender with 5000 men at Saratoga (1777).

This gave France the opportunity for which she had been waiting to side with the United States. She sent help in men and money to them, and also made war on us in Europe and other parts; and when Spain and Holland took sides against us, we were quite overmatched.

Even so, however, the war in America went on with varying fortunes, until another disaster brought



Washington crossing the Delaware, Christmas, 1776.

it to a close. An English army of 5000 men was surrounded and besieged in Yorktown by 18,000 French and Americans, and by the French fleet, and after a brave resistance our men had to surrender (1781).

After this there was hardly any more fighting, for both sides were nearly exhausted. The new American government was nearly bankrupt; and Washington was begged to make himself dictator of the United States. He refused to do so, and soon showed his patriotism by retiring into private life for a time.

Our statesmen came to see that it was useless to prolong the war in America. In Europe, England boldly faced her many enemies, and our troops splendidly defended Gibraltar for three years against countless assaults of the French and Spaniards. Enraged at the obstinacy of the British defence, the besiegers finally sent ten great floating batteries close to the walls of the fortress. Our men replied to their terrific broadsides by firing red-hot cannonballs, which at last set them on fire. The enemy's last great effort failed, and the Union Jack continued to wave over the rock of Gibraltar. The English Admiral Rodney also gained a great victory over the French fleet in the West Indies. So Great Britain ended this war against her many foes with something like honour (1783).

Great Britain also made peace with the United

States and recognized their independence. In other parts of the world she held her own fairly well, and even gained ground in India. Hardly ever had any country fought so many enemies at once, and come out of the struggle so creditably. The loss of the United States was, of course, a terrible blow; but it has taught us this important lesson, that it is best not to interfere too much with the local affairs of our colonists, and to let them manage their own taxation.

### WILLIAM PITT, THE YOUNGER.

#### 1. REDUCTION OF TAXATION.—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

We have read of the wonderful way in which William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, restored our country in 1757–1760, after a time of failure and disgrace. His second son, also named William, was to render equally great services to our land, after reverses far more terrible than those which the Earl of Chatham had repaired.

This famous son of a famous father was born in 1759 at Hayes, in Kent. He completed his education at the University of Cambridge, and entered Parliament at an unusually early age. At the time when he entered public life our country was in a sad state. We were at war with our American



colonists and with half the great states of Europe. Ireland was in almost open revolt: a little later we had to make peace with our many foes (1783), and our disasters wrung from the patriotic young Pitt the despairing cry, "The sun of England's glory is set".

Pitt had lately become Chancellor of the Exchequer, and had to do his best to meet the heavy expenses of the wars. His clear and convincing speeches and his straightforward conduct quickly gained him a great name; and in 1784 he took on his shoulders the heavy burden of being Prime Minister of George III. Pitt was then a youth of twenty-four years of age, and could get no man of power and experience to work with him. "They are a set of children playing at Ministers," said one of his opponents, "and ought to be sent back to school." The current of events at first seemed certain to sweep him helplessly before it. The country was sullen after its defeats and losses, trade was bad, and he had to face a hostile majority in Parliament itself.

Still the young Prime Minister struggled on, showing that he had faith in his country and confidence in his own powers. On one occasion he said, "I am sure that I can save this country, and that nobody else can". This was no empty boast, but the expression of an able man's confidence in himself; and everyone admired his pluck, his

talents, his clear, telling speeches, and, above all, his keen sense of honour. The country had recently been ruled by men whose honesty had not been



William Pitt, the Younger.

above suspicion. Now it felt that the spirit of Chatham was breathing again in the acts, speeches, and patriotism of his son. "He is not a chip of the old block," said one of his admirers; "he is the old block itself." After many reverses in Parlia-

ment Pitt at last appealed to the people, and after the general election he had a majority of members favourable to him.

He had already begun to put our finances in order, and sadly they needed it. The recent wars had added more than £100,000,000 to our national debt. The taxes were very heavy, and so were the duties on articles which came into the country, or which were exported. Pitt boldly determined to make these duties lighter so as to encourage trade with other countries. He also saw that it would lead to a falling off in smuggling; and it did, for now, when the duties paid at our ports were lighter, smugglers did not find it so profitable as before to run in their cargoes secretly. It was hardly worth the risk of seizure and imprisonment. So honest trade began to improve, and the habits of our coast population also took a turn for the better. To make up for the slight loss to the nation's revenue, he imposed an income-tax, which was not to be paid by the poor.

By these wise and far-seeing measures Pitt soon made our country more prosperous than it had ever been before; and he began to reduce the national debt, so as to be able to lessen the taxes still more.

But all this useful work soon came to an end, owing to terrible events which took place in France. For a long time past the French people had had a bad system of taxation and government. The poor

were very heavily taxed, while the rich were nearly free from taxes. The people had little or no voice in public affairs, and the recent war with England had led to France becoming bankrupt. At last her people rose in their fury and overthrew the old order of things. They seized the Bastille, a very strong castle, which then stood by one of the gates of Paris: they compelled their king and queen to come to Paris, and in 1793 the extreme party caused them, as well as many others whom they hated, to be executed.

These events are known as the French Revolution. Excited and ignorant men seized on power at Paris. War was proclaimed against neighbouring countries, and in 1793 the young French Republic made war on England. Pitt had done all that he could to keep at peace with France; but the violence and folly of the men who were in power at Paris brought about a war which dashed all his hopes of progress and prosperity. The war, which began in 1793, lasted (with a short interval) for twenty-one years. At first our troops were so few and so badly led that they were several times beaten by the French in the Netherlands.

There was much discontent in England, caused by the burdens of the war, and by the desire of some few of our people to overthrow the monarchy and to make England a republic, as the French had done in their land. Pitt passed some severe laws

to curb the agitators, and he felt that he must give up his plans of reform until the war was over.

He did not show himself to be as great a war minister as his father had been, for he had not Chatham's gift of putting the right man in the right place. France, on the contrary, showed a marvellous power in raising soldiers and driving back her many foes. Her victories became all the more astounding when her troops were commanded by a great military genius, Napoleon Bonaparte.

## 2. WAR WITH FRANCE.—THE IRISH ACT OF UNION.

Napoleon Bonaparte was born in Corsica in 1769, and was educated in France. He so distinguished himself in some events of the French Revolution that he was named commander of the French army in Italy. There he defeated the Austrians in eighteen great battles, drove them back to Vienna, and compelled them to make peace with France (1797).

England was now left alone to struggle against the mighty power of France and her allies. It was a terrible time for us. Though our sailors had beaten the French and Dutch fleets, yet they themselves were discontented, and broke out into obstinate mutinies. At last, when the ringleaders were hanged, the men returned to their duty; and, under Nelson, they soon showed their former devotion and bravery. The rest of these events will be

told in the lessons which describe the lives of Nelson and Wellington.

Pitt had to face all these difficulties, as well as



Napoleon at the head of his Army crossing the Alps to Italy

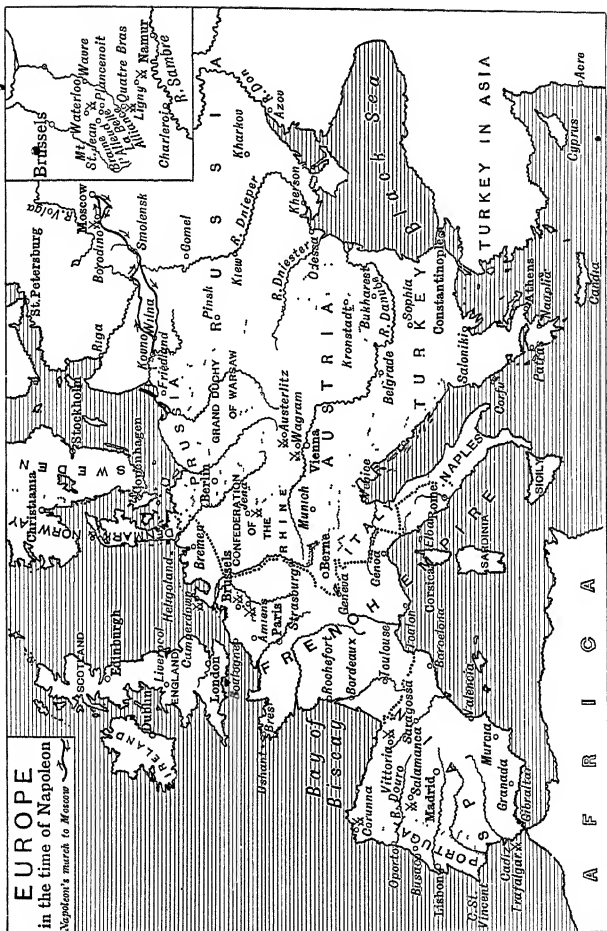
troubles in Ireland, where the people were deeply excited by the events of the French Revolution, and desired to overthrow the form of government which then oppressed them. Ever since the conquest of Ireland by William III., the Protestants there had kept the Roman Catholics in a state

of subjection. This led to bitter feelings, and in 1798 a fierce rebellion broke out, which was put down with terrible bloodshed by the governing classes.

Pitt saw that this state of things must be ended; and in 1800 he passed the Act of Union, whereby the Irish members of Parliament were to sit with the British Parliament at Westminster, and the same laws were to hold good for Ireland as for Great Britain. He knew that while the Irish Protestants held power over there the Roman Catholics would not have fair play. He also hoped to pass a measure for giving to all Roman Catholics the same rights as the Protestants had. But George III. was very angry at this last proposal, and Pitt had to resign (1801). This was very unfortunate, as Pitt was wanted just then more than ever; but he had pledged his word to get justice done to the Roman Catholics, and as the king would not let it be done, Pitt felt that he must resign office.<sup>1</sup>

The next ministry was a very weak one. Peace was made with France on unfavourable terms, but even so it did not last. Napoleon had become almost complete master of France, and he seemed bent on provoking us to war again. After war broke out, everyone felt that Pitt alone could

<sup>1</sup>Not till 1829 did Roman Catholics get the right of voting and other political rights.





manage our affairs, and he became Prime Minister again (1804).

Napoleon now became Emperor of the French, and he seemed determined to invade and conquer our land. He assembled a great army of 120,000 men on the cliffs at Boulogne, and prepared a fleet of some 1200 small vessels and flat-bottomed row-boats to take them over the Straits of Dover. Our people were much alarmed, and Pitt organized a national defence. In every town and village men began to form bands of volunteers. Beacons were piled upon the hill-tops of Kent so as to flash the news of any landing of the foe; and martello towers were built on those parts of the coast between Suffolk and Sussex where a landing might be made.

Besides this, our sailors were on the alert; and they defeated every attempt of the French to get command of the English Channel.

Napoleon, finding his plan to be useless, suddenly broke up his camp at Boulogne, marched his troops against those of Austria, and by terrible defeats again compelled her to sign a disastrous peace. This news crushed Pitt's health and spirits. He had hoped that the great States of Europe would conquer Napoleon: but now he said to his attendants, "Roll up that map of Europe, it will not be wanted these ten years". The prophecy was to come strangely true. The dying statesman saw that Europe would for a long time be subject to

Napoleon. His keen foresight detected the greater disasters yet to come, and the truth crushed him. His sunken cheek and hollow eyes told that death was drawing nigh, and his release from the troubles of life was to him a merciful deliverance. Yet his last thoughts wandered off to the land which he had loved so well, and his last words were "My country, how I leave my country!"

LINE OF SIR WALTER SCOTT ON THE  
DEATH OF PITT.

Hadst thou but lived, though stripped of power,  
A watchman on the lonely tower,  
Thy thrilling trump had roused the land  
When fraud or danger was at hand.  
By thee as by the beacon-light  
Our pilots had kept course aright;  
As some proud column, though alone,  
Thy strength had propped the tottering throne.  
Now is the stately column broke,  
The beacon light is quenched in smoke,  
The trumpet's silver sound is still,  
The warder silent on the hill.

THE STORY OF LORD NELSON.

Pitt, Nelson, and Wellington—these were the men who served their country best during the great war with France. Pitt was the statesman who guided his country's councils, Nelson gained for her the mastery of the seas, and Wellington did

more than any one man to overthrow Napoleon's power.

Horatio Nelson was the son of the rector of Burnham Thorpe in Norfolk, and was born there in 1758. He was weak and delicate in body, but in boyhood, as in the rest of his life, he seemed never to know what fear was. Once, at the end of holidays, his elder brother and he set out to return to school on their ponies. The snow was so deep that they turned back home; but their father bade them go through it to school, with the parting words, "Remember, boys, that I leave it to your honour". That was enough for the young Horatio. He urged his pony on through the deep snow, saying to his brother, "Remember, brother, it was left to our honour".

He showed the same spirit when he entered the navy. He hated its hard and cruel rules; but he began to like the life when he went on adventurous voyages. One of these was in the Arctic Ocean, and Nelson here also showed his courage. He and a comrade secretly left the ship to pursue a bear over the ice. His musket missed fire and he was in great danger, had not a cannon, fired from the ship, frightened the bear away. When he was afterwards rebuked by the captain he merely said, "Sir, I wished to kill the bear that I might take the skin to my father".

In due course he became captain; and when the

great war with France began, he commanded a warship in the Mediterranean. During the siege of a town in Corsica, where he commanded an



Horatio, Viscount Nelson

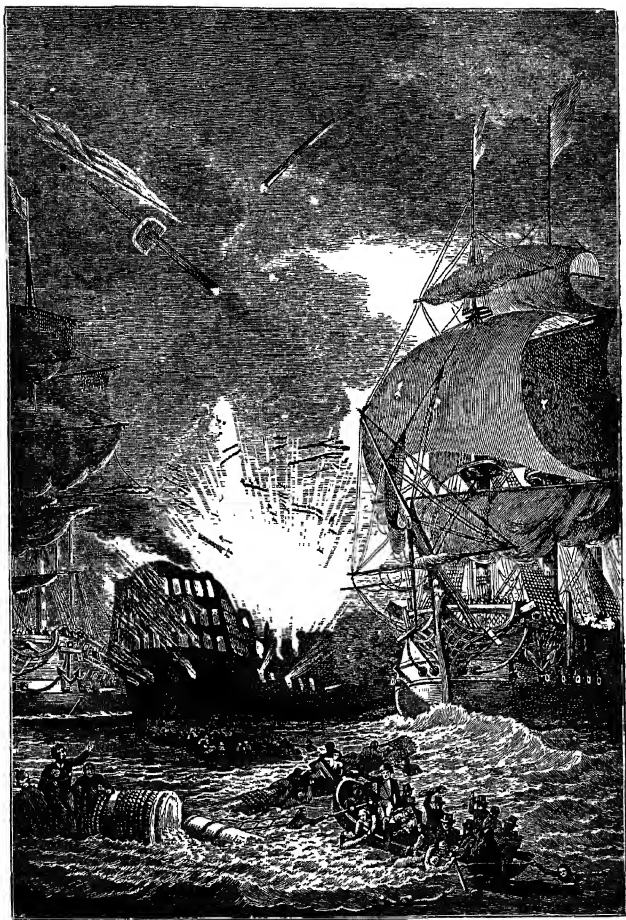
English battery, a French cannon ball struck the ground near him and drove some sand up into one of his eyes, so that for ever after he lost sight in that eye.

The first great sea-fight in which he took part was that of Cape St. Vincent (1797). Our fleet numbered fifteen ships of the line and four frigates. That of the Spaniards was about twice as strong;

but our men were brave, skilled, and fully confident. Our ships threw the Spanish fleet into confusion, and the men of Nelson's ship jumped on board an enemy's ship, which was closely locked with his, and captured it. Nelson was not content with this, but called to his men to take another large Spanish ship close by. Inspiring his men by the words "Victory, or Westminster Abbey!" he leaped on it, and soon the Union Jack replaced the Spanish flag at the mast-head of this second prize. For this exploit the English Admiral Jervis, embraced Nelson, and said he could not thank him enough.

Nelson was not always successful. He failed in attacks on Cadiz and on Teneriffe; and at the latter place his right arm was torn off by a cannon-ball. A little later he was sent to blockade the French fleet in Toulon, but during a storm it managed to get out, and sailed for Malta and Egypt; for the plan of the ambitious young Bonaparte was to conquer Egypt, and then go on to drive the English from India.

Nelson put a stop to these designs. After searching the east of the Mediterranean for the French fleet, he came up with it as it lay at anchor near a shoal, and not far from the mouth of the river Nile. It was near sunset, but Nelson determined to attack at once. He sent his ships in two lines, so as to sail along the enemy's line and conquer it bit by bit.



The Battle of the Nile—the Destruction of the French Ship *L'Orient*.

Darkness quickly drew on, but the whole scene was lit up by the flashes from the guns. The leading French ships quickly had their masts shot away, and soon their largest ship, *L'Orient*, caught fire. The flames spread with fearful rapidity, throwing a lurid light on the desperate combat, and when the fire reached her powder magazine the gallant ship blew up. An English captain who was present thus described the scene. "An awful pause and deathlike silence ensued, until the wreck of the masts and yards, which had been carried to a vast height, fell down into the water and on board the neighbouring ships." After this the firing went on for five hours, till out of the seventeen French ships only four escaped.

#### LORD NELSON (*Continued*).

Napoleon's troops had conquered Egypt, but the destruction of their fleet now cut them off from France. After a time Napoleon succeeded in escaping to France, but his army had to surrender to our troops two years later, and Egypt was given back to Turkey. Nelson also took Malta from the French. So, instead of the French driving us from India, we became, thanks to Nelson, stronger than ever before in the Mediterranean.

In 1801 Nelson again delivered us from a great danger. Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark had

formed a league against us, while we were without any ally and were still at war with France, Spain, and Holland. But Admirals Parker and Nelson at once sailed with a great fleet to Copenhagen, so as to seize the mouth of the Baltic, and beat the Danes before the Russians and Prussians could help them. Off Copenhagen there was a long and obstinate battle between Nelson's ships and the Danish batteries and armed hulks. At one time it seemed that Nelson must be beaten, and Parker gave the signal to recall him and his ships. But Nelson, in his determination to fight on, put his telescope to his blind eye, exclaiming, "I really do not see the signal. Keep mine for closer battle flying. That's the way I answer such signals. Nail mine to the mast."

The Danes, however, had had enough of it, and Nelson, seeing this, sent a flag of truce with a message that the brave Danes were the brothers, and should never be the enemies, of the English. A truce was made, and Parker and Nelson, after repairing their ships, sailed on towards St. Petersburg. But the Czar of Russia, who had been so hostile to us, had been murdered by his own officers; and the new Czar wanted peace, which was soon concluded (1801).

For a short time there was also peace with France; but Napoleon's acts made peace impossible, and war began again in 1803. Nelson was sent to



blockade a large French fleet in Toulon and prevent it from sailing away and helping their army to cross from Boulogne to Kent. He spent many weary months cruising off Toulon, and was quite worn out by the unceasing service. At last, the French fleet put out to sea, while Nelson's ships were away. When at last our admiral found out the enemy's course, he chased them across the Atlantic, and prevented them doing much harm to our West Indian Islands. He next discovered that they meant to sail back to the English Channel, and sent fast-sailing ships to warn our Admiralty of their intentions. So that plan of theirs came to naught.

Finally he came up with the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar. They had thirty-three ships of the line and eight frigates, while Nelson's fleet numbered only twenty-seven ships of the line and four frigates. But his men were well trained, and were devoted to their leader; and when Nelson hoisted as his signal "England expects that every man will do his duty", all the crews received it with a ringing cheer.

The British ships, sailing in two columns, soon broke through and disordered the enemy's line. The French and Spaniards fought stubbornly, and Nelson's ship, the *Victory*, suffered terribly. A musket shot fired from the mast of a French ship pierced Nelson's back, and he fell. When taken

below he would not let the doctor attend to him, but bade him see to the wounded men whose lives could be saved. No human skill could save him, and his life slowly ebbed away. He lived just long enough to know that his fleet had gained a complete victory, and his last words were, "Thank God, I have done my duty".

Twenty of the enemy's ships surrendered to our brave fellows; and this great victory of Trafalgar (October, 1805) made England mistress of the seas more than ever she had been before. In return for Nelson's bravery and devotion to his country, England reared him a monument in St. Paul's Cathedral, and the great column in Trafalgar Square in London. No admiral ever was more kindly to his own men, or more daring or successful in fight; and England counts him as the greatest of her naval heroes.

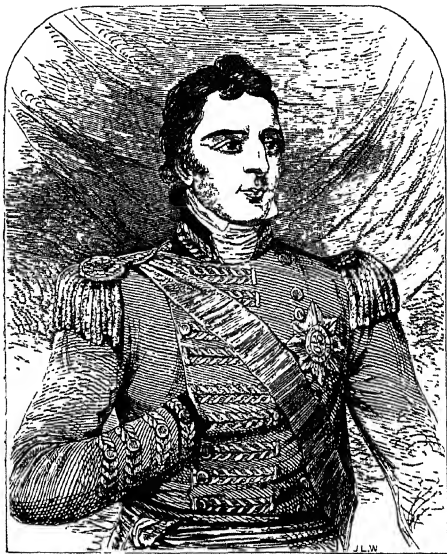
## THE STORY OF WELLINGTON.

### 1. SIR ARTHUR WELLESLEY IN INDIA.

Arthur Wellesley, who was afterwards made Duke of Wellington, was born in Ireland in 1769, the same year in which his great antagonist, Napoleon, was born. Our great general came of a noble and talented family, his father being well-known for his fondness of music. The family was

poor, and only with difficulty was Arthur, the third son, sent to the great school at Eton.

There he showed himself a bright, spirited lad,



Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington.

fond of all manly games. Indeed, he afterwards said that Waterloo was won in the playing-fields at Eton. He meant that Englishmen became strong by taking part in football and cricket, and so were able to hold out long and to beat their foes in warfare.

He spent a short time at a military school in France, and in due course he entered our army. He first saw active service in Flanders in 1794, when he was captain of a regiment. A small British army there was fighting the French; but our men were too few in number, they were also badly led, and received little assistance from their Prussian and Austrian allies. The British troops had to retreat before the victorious French in the midst of very severe wintry weather.

Thus the first experience of the young captain was very trying. Yet he did not lose heart, even when men were dropping beside him from hunger and the intense frost. He did his best to keep his men together, and to protect the rear of the army, till it was taken on board ship and was brought back to England.

Soon afterwards Wellesley was sent with his regiment to India. A friend there thus describes him:—"He was a handsome and most soldier-like man, with an eye that looked you through and through. He was cheerful and free of speech among his friends, but rather reserved in general society. He would often sit silent for an hour together in a corner of the great hall at Calcutta, and then would pace up and down the room with quick impatient steps. It was quite evident that he longed for something to do."

He soon had plenty to do. There was then an

able and powerful ruler in the south of India called Tippoo, who was hoping, with the help of the French, to drive us out of India. Tippoo had about 70,000 native troops, while our army did not number more than 20,000 men.

It seemed very risky to attempt to capture his strong city of Seringapatam against these odds, yet it was done. A breach was battered in the wall by our cannon. Our soldiers rushed up through the breach, and after a fearful struggle the place was ours (1799). Wellesley distinguished himself by his bravery all through the fighting, and then kept order among our men when they began to plunder the conquered city. Tippoo was killed, and since that time we have had no trouble in Southern India.

Wellesley's next great exploits were against the warlike Mahrattas. When we read about Warren Hastings, we saw that the Mahrattas were bands of horsemen who had plundered a great part of India, had formed powerful States, and had then threatened our rule in that country. They were in 1800 quite as dangerous as they had been in the time of Warren Hastings.

Wellesley was now made a general, and he advanced against a force of Mahrattas, which was nearly eight times as large as his own. Still, he remembered Plassey, and did not despair. He met his foes at Assaye. Their cannon dealt death among

the thin British lines, until our men were near



Sir Arthur Wellesley leading the Charge at the Battle of Assaya.

enough to rush on with the bayonet and drive back their valiant foes. Then a charge of our

horsemen completed the victory of Assaye, which scattered the Mahrattas and led to the capture of ninety of their cannon (1803).

Again, in the same year, Wellesley routed the Mahrattas, and they were glad to make peace. Thus he completed the work which Clive and Warren Hastings had begun, and we had no serious war in the middle of India until the Mutiny of 1857. The British merchants at Bombay were so delighted with Wellesley's victories that they gave him an ornamented sword worth £1000; and Parliament thanked him for his brilliant services in India.

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## 2. WELLESLEY COMMANDS IN THE PENINSULA AND BECOMES DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

But Wellesley was to win far greater fame in wars in Europe against the French.

While Wellesley was strengthening our rule in India, Napoleon Bonaparte had been making himself master of France, and in 1804 he was crowned Emperor of the French in the great cathedral at Paris. Again there was war between England and France, which soon enveloped all Europe in flames. Though Nelson drove the French off the seas, yet Napoleon's armies were so splendidly led that they defeated the Austrians, the Russians, and the Prussians in several great battles. In 1807 Napoleon was almost completely master of

the Continent. It seemed as though England was to be mistress of the seas, but Napoleon was to be master of the land. Indeed, he hoped that he would be able to ruin our trade, and so compel us to accept peace on any terms. Thus the war became a struggle for life or death to our people.

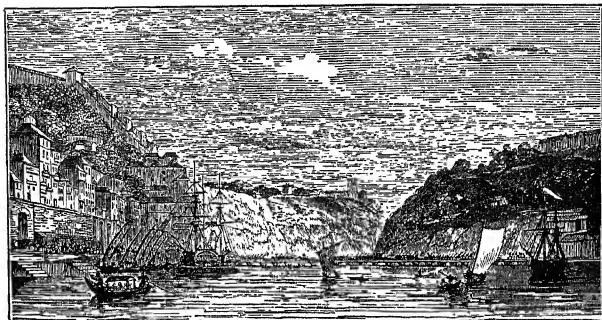
The French Emperor had resolved to have Spain under his control. His troops occupied most of the strong places in that land, and by mean tricks he kidnapped the King of Spain and kept him a captive in France. The Spaniards are a very proud people, and were determined to drive out the French troops. Spain begged England to help her in this desperate struggle, and Wellesley was sent out with a small force.

Wellesley landed in Portugal and beat back an attack of the French; but then the command was taken from him by older officers, who had just landed, and easy terms were granted to the enemy. Still, the French had to leave Portugal; and it had been shown that when our men were well led they could beat the famous French troops (1808).

In the next year Wellesley for the first time met the brave French Marshal Soult, with whom he had so many battles. The French, after driving back Sir John Moore's army to Corunna, had invaded the north of Portugal, and now occupied the important city of Oporto. Wellesley's army rapidly marched against them, quickly crossed the



broad river Douro in boats, surprised Soult's army, put it to flight, and captured all its baggage, stores, and cannon. He afterwards wrote that, if there had been but one more hour of daylight, his men would have captured all Soult's forces in a difficult pass



Oporto, showing the Bridge of Boats, and Troops crossing the Douro, 1809.

through the mountains. As it was, the French only just managed to escape into Spain.

Wellesley gained another victory in that year, 1809, namely, the Battle of Talavera. It was a long and desperate battle, fought on hilly ground near the banks of the Tagus. Our men were then helped by the Spaniards, but these could not be relied on to do any more than stand firm behind the walls, and among the orchards of olive-trees where Wellesley placed them. The 50,000 French attacked our 20,000 men who stood in the open. At one time they nearly broke through our line,

and only by a splendid charge of an English regiment was the French attacking column thrust back and the victory won. As a reward for his skill and valour Wellesley received the title of Viscount Wellington, and a few years later he was called Duke of Wellington. We shall now in the rest of these lessons call him by his title, Wellington.

The heat of the Spanish midsummer told fearfully on our men, and yet the Spaniards would spare them hardly any food. As other French forces were approaching, Wellington retreated down the Tagus, and left the Spaniards to gain wisdom by being beaten. He felt that he could no longer work with allies who always would have things done in their own way, whose promises were nearly always broken, and who sometimes plundered the English stores. By the end of 1809 the Spaniards were defeated by the French nearly everywhere. Still they would not give in, but tried to tire out the French by warfare among the mountains.

### 3. THE FRENCH DRIVEN FROM THE PENINSULA.

In 1810 Napoleon had no enemies to fight except the British, Spanish, and Portuguese troops, and he hoped to be able quickly to end the Peninsular War. He sent a great army of his best troops into Spain, led by one of his ablest generals. On it swept through Spain, and drove Wellington's smaller army

before it through the north of Portugal. But Wellington fiercely turned to bay on the steep ridge of Busaco, and beat back two brave attempts of the French veterans to seize the summit.

But, by a movement of the French army against his unprotected flank, Wellington was obliged to fall back on a still stronger position, a few miles to the north of Lisbon. There he had ordered great lines of earthworks to be made, which were called the lines of Torres Vedras. They were made along the tops of the hills which stretch from the sea to the banks of the broad and deep river Tagus. Five hundred cannon defended them, and Wellington had made the Portuguese peasants bring all their cattle, sheep, and corn inside these lines. As he could also get supplies from ships which came to Lisbon, he hoped to be able to defend these lines, to have plenty of food for his troops, and to starve out the French from the desolate country north of the lines. His plan was completely successful.

When the French commander came within sight of the lines, he was dismayed at their strength. For several days he tried to find a weak place in them, but it was all in vain. His army soon began to be in want of food. The rains of autumn came on in torrents. His men began to fall sick; and before very long he had to lead his army back out of Portugal, with a loss of 30,000 men. He had been

ordered by Napoleon to drive the English into the sea; but his failure only showed the bravery of our soldiers and the skill of Wellington.

In 1812 the French Emperor collected a great army of more than half a million of men, and led them into Russia, so as to subdue that vast land. He reached Moscow, but then he had to retreat, and he lost nearly all that great army in the winter snows. As he had recalled a good number of his troops from Spain, to serve him in Russia, Wellington had not such odds to fight against in Spain during the campaign of 1812.

One of the younger French generals also gave Wellington an opportunity of striking quick and hard. The French had been making rapid marches to cut our men off from the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo; but near Salamanca part of their army marched rather too far from the rest of it. Wellington saw their mistake, and joyfully exclaimed, "Now I have them". He at once ordered our men to seize strong positions which would cut the French forces asunder.

For a time there was fierce fighting on the hills near Salamanca. When the French commander was badly wounded, another of their generals took his place, and skilfully drew up his shattered forces for another struggle. But our troops, flushed with victory, rushed at them with the bayonet, drove them away in complete disorder, and took about 7000 prisoners.

This great victory of Salamanca made the French give up their hold on Madrid, and retreat towards the river Ebro. Wellington led his army into the Spanish capital amidst the wild rejoicings of the people, who for four years had been oppressed by the French.

All the people of Madrid poured into the streets to welcome their English deliverers. Flags fluttered from the windows, tapestry was hung on the balconies, men and women dressed in their gayest attire waved their handkerchiefs and shouted "Long live Wellington!" Green boughs, flowers, and shawls were strewn before his horse's feet, and people clung to his stirrups to show their devotion. When Wellington, later on, wanted to walk about quietly, he could hardly move for the crowds who thronged about him, and even when he and his officers went out at nightfall, dressed in plain overcoats, they were recognized, and men and women flocked up to greet and even to embrace the great general.

But soon the French were able to bring up more troops, and Wellington had to fall back, if he was to save his army. Next year he commanded a large force of Spaniards as well as our own soldiers, and, moving rapidly forward, he drove back the French from one place to another. At Vittoria he completely defeated them, taking all their stores, money, and cannon. He then drove them over the

Pyrenees, and forced them to give up their hold on Spain.

.The battles of the Pyrenees were fought and won



Triumphal Entry of Wellington into Madrid

by our men high up on the slopes of those great mountains, where only the wild goat and the eagle are wont to be seen. The mountain mists of that

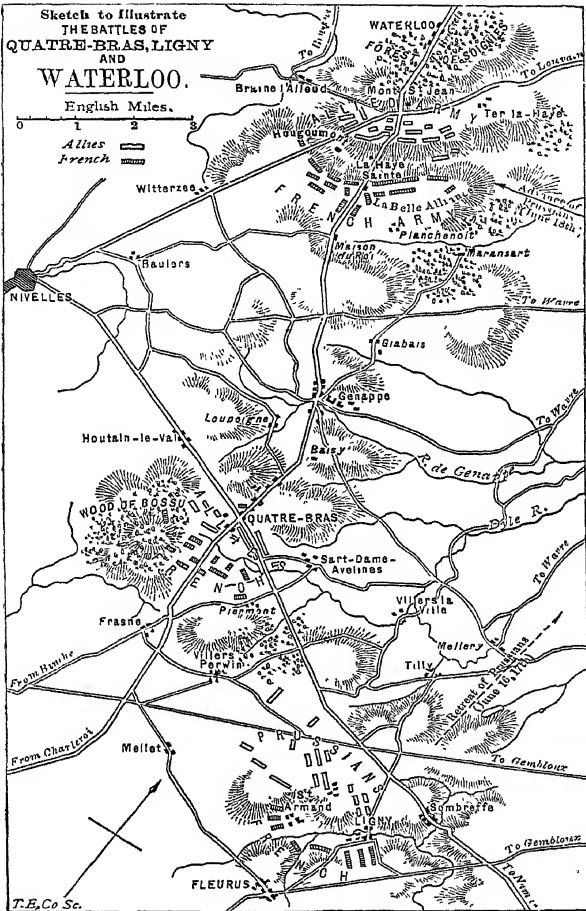
autumn season chilled our soldiers as they lay at night with scant covering on the cheerless rocks; and it was with joy that they pursued Soult's soldiers down the northern slopes of the mountains, and entered the sunny plains of France.

#### 4. THE END OF THE GREAT WAR.

Wellington was most careful to prevent his men plundering the French peasants. He said: "I care not much whether I command a large or a small army, but it must obey me; and above all, it must not plunder". Soon the peasants found out that they were better treated by our soldiers than by their own. Wellington gained two more successes over his adversary, Soult; but then the war came to a speedy end, for the following reason.

The other peoples of Europe, especially the Germans, had risen against Napoleon's rule, had chased his armies from their land, and had just captured Paris. The French were weary of war. Napoleon gave up his crown, and the victorious allies determined that he should now rule only over the small island of Elba, just off the coast of Italy. So he had to go there, and Europe had peace for a few months.

But there was much discontent in France against the ruler who took Napoleon's place, and when the allies began to quarrel among themselves, Napoleon





saw his chance. He secretly took ship, and with a few troops landed on the coast of France. His old soldiers soon flocked to his side, and he became Emperor of the French for a short time again. But other nations knew that there would be no peace while he was in power, and troops began to march from Prussia, Austria, and Russia to dethrone him.

England also sent an army to Belgium, under the command of Wellington, who now, for the first time, met the great Napoleon in battle. The French emperor hoped to surprise Wellington's army and that of the Prussians before they were ready. He nearly succeeded, and, flinging a great French force against our Prussian allies at Ligny, he defeated them and drove them back.

On that same day another desperate battle was going on at Quatre Bras, only a few miles away from Ligny. Wellington's men there had very hard work to keep their position from being seized by the French, who plied them with cannon-shot, and tried in vain to cut them up by cavalry charges. At last, when our brave fellows were reinforced, the French drew off; but Wellington had to fall back on a position at Waterloo, nearer Brussels, so as to keep touch with his Prussian allies.

Wellington, with 69,000 men, of whom only one-third were British, now stood face to face at Waterloo with Napoleon's army, which numbered at least 75,000 well-trained soldiers. Many of

Wellington's men were raw and undisciplined, and he trusted to the help which Blücher's Prussians would bring in the coming battle. Napoleon believed that a French force, which he had sent to pursue the Prussians, would prevent them from joining Wellington.

The battle of Waterloo opened with a heavy cannonade. Then the French columns marched down their slope to attack the middle of Wellington's long line, posted on the rising ground opposite. As the blue French columns pressed up, they were charged by English, Scotch, and Irish horsemen, and were hurled back in great disorder. Then our brave fellows, hotly pursuing them, rode up the French slope and sabred many of the enemy's gunners; but their zeal carried them too far, and they were cut up by a charge of heavy French cavalry.

Again the French pressed forward, but were beaten off by the steady fire of Wellington's best troops. Then Napoleon, seeing the Prussians begin to appear afar off, let his cavalry be used in order to gain the victory speedily before the Prussians came up. So 10,000 French horsemen, clad in their gay uniforms, or glittering in their steel cuirasses, began to charge at the red British squares. It seemed as though the weight of these famous cavalry regiments must break up the squares, but our men stood their ground, firm as rocks, while charge after charge surged around; and after two

hours, the French cavalry fell back, beaten and exhausted.

But our troops had suffered frightfully from the cannonade and from these many attacks, and Wellington looked often and anxiously for the Prussians



to help him. When they came up, Napoleon had to turn part of his army round to face this new foe. As the shades of evening began to fall, the French made a last great effort to win the day. Their best troops, called the Old Guard, advanced in two great columns to pierce Wellington's line; but our men were ready for them, met them with terrible volleys, and drove them into the valley. Then Wellington gave to his impatient troops the long-expected order

to advance; and his men, aided by the Prussians, drove the French away in headlong rout.

Napoleon fled for his life to Paris. There he again abdicated, and was soon taken on a British war-ship to the lonely island of St. Helena. Then, thanks to Wellington and Blücher, Europe had peace, which lasted for forty years.

Wellington lived to a good old age, respected and beloved by our people. He died in 1852.

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## HARGREAVES AND THE SPINNING-JENNY.

We have already learnt about Wedgwood, who made such a change in the potteries of Staffordshire. Now we are to read about the men who have altered the whole character of our spinning and weaving trades. We must first try to understand what was the condition of these trades before the time of the great inventors.

Before their days, the spinning and weaving was done in a very homely manner in many parts of our land. In fact, wherever there were large numbers of sheep, and clear streams for cleansing the wool, there you would find men and women employed in their own cottages in working up the wool into cloth.

The men would shear the sheep in June, and cleanse the wool in the stream. Then it would

generally be put by till the nights became long, and when there was not much to be done on the farm. In the autumn and winter evenings, the wife and daughters would take out their spinning-wheels, and make the rough wool into woollen thread. ,

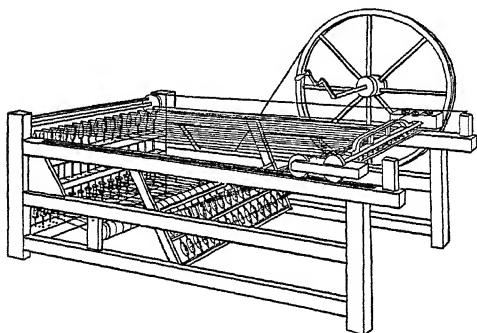
Then the husband at his loom would ply his shuttle, so as to cross the threads and make cloth of them. In some parts there were small factories, where many men and apprentices were busy under the same roof. Such factories were to be found especially near the hills of Wiltshire, Somerset, Gloucestershire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire, as well as in the fertile eastern counties of England, and along the course of the Tweed and the Clyde in Scotland.

The cloth thus turned out by the human hand was generally coarse, and it took a long time to make. Besides, the spinners or spinsters of a family could not make enough thread to keep one weaver going. So men set their wits to work to invent some contrivance which would get the spinning done more quickly.

Among the first to make any important advance was a Lancashire weaver named Hargreaves. A quick and clever man sometimes hits upon a new idea from observing some slight and trivial occurrence, and this was the case with Hargreaves. His wife's spinning-wheel happened to be overturned, and he noticed that the wheel went on turning when it was in that unusual position. He thought

to himself, "Why should I not make a machine in which several wheels could turn in that way, and in which some contrivance could hold the pieces of wool and give them the twist which would make them into thread?"

Before long he made a machine (1767) which



Hargreaves' Spinning-jenny.

spun several threads more quickly and finely than his wife and daughter could do them. He called his machine a jenny, after the name of his wife. But the news of this made his neighbours very jealous. They broke into his cottage and destroyed his jenny. As he was determined to use his new invention, he removed to Nottingham and made another better than the first. After a few years he made one which would spin thirty threads at once, and his machine was found to be so useful

that it spread into Lancashire, and even into the village where the first jenny had been destroyed. Hargreaves himself died a poor man in 1778.

## THE STORY OF ARKWRIGHT AND CROMPTON.

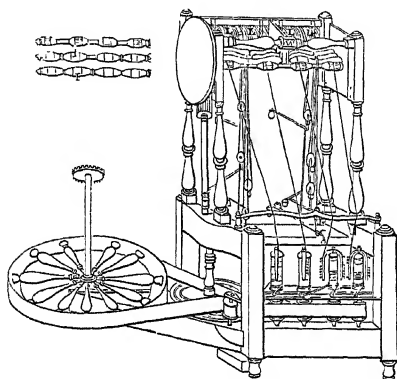
Another man who improved the spinning of thread was Richard Arkwright. Strange to say, he was not a weaver or a spinner, but a barber. He was the son of a poor man at Preston, in Lancashire, who had twelve other children, and as Richard was the youngest child, he had hardly any early advantages of education. But he soon showed that he had plenty of push and go in him. After being for some time a barber, he took to a more profitable calling, and travelled about buying up hair, which he then sold to wig-makers.

In his travels he kept his eyes open to what was going on in other trades, and at that time there had been one or two attempts to make a spinning-machine. He knew little about this machinery at first, but he made friends with mechanics, and persuaded one of them to make a model of a machine with improvements which he suggested.

He next removed to Nottingham, and after a long struggle with poverty he made a spinning-machine which was, in some respects, better than that of Hargreaves. At first his machine was turned by a horse; but, as he found that it would

be better to get it turned by water-power, he removed to Cromford, a pretty village just below Matlock, on the river Derwent.

That river flows very swiftly, so it was easy to



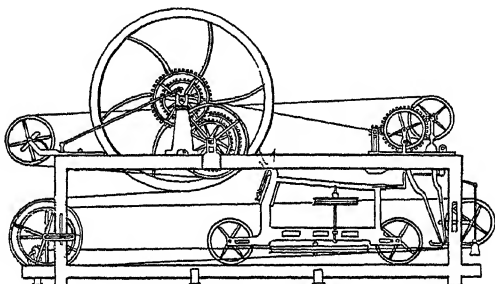
Arkwright's Spinning-jenny.

build a mill containing several machines, all of which could be worked by the water-wheel which was turned by the current of the river. Arkwright's activity was shown in his numerous journeys on horseback or by coach to Manchester, or even to Scotland, for the purpose of seeing any improvements in machinery, or of extending his business. In course of time he became a wealthy man, and was knighted by George I.

Another man who did much to improve the spinning-machine was Samuel Crompton, the son of



a farmer near Bolton, in Lancashire. He was a quiet, thoughtful lad, and when he was spinning he used to think of the way in which Hargreaves' jenny could be improved. For a long time he used to work secretly at his improvement; and the



Crompton's Spinning "Mule".

people of the house were often alarmed at the strange noises which came from the upper room. It was even said by the neighbours that the house was haunted, until at last it was known that the noise came from his new machine.

When it was finished it was found to be better than the machine of Hargreaves or of Arkwright, and as it had all the good points of both, Crompton called his invention the *mule*. The mule made thread finer and firmer than ever before had been made; so that it was soon possible to make in our own land muslins better than those of India. Owing to his invention Lancashire and Lanarkshire

became far more prosperous than ever they had been.

Crompton was a modest and retiring man. He never became rich, though Parliament voted to him a sum of £3000 for his valuable invention. The prosperity of Lancashire dates from the time of Crompton, for soon cotton began to be made better and cheaper than before, and the industry centred more and more in Lancashire, because the American cotton could be brought so readily to Liverpool. Instead of being one of the most backward of our counties, as it was in 1750, it quickly became the wealthiest and most thickly-peopled county in Great Britain.

### CARTWRIGHT AND THE POWER-LOOM.

The inventions about which we have just read were all connected with the spinning of thread, not with the weaving of cloth. You cannot make cloth unless you have a good firm thread to work with. So it was only natural that the first great inventions in the cotton and woollen trades should be for improving the making of thread.

But we should not to-day have our great manufactures of cotton and woollen goods unless we could quickly and cheaply work up the thread into sheets and cloths; and that could not be done quickly by the old hand-loom, which was at best a

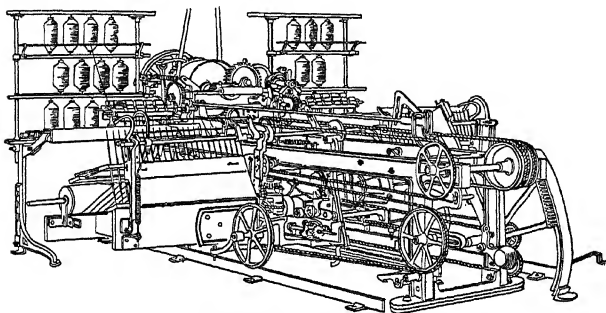
cumbrous contrivance. The worker would have his rows of threads before him, and then would throw his shuttle to get the thread to go cross-wise, and these cross threads when tightened on the upright threads made the cloth. σ

It occurred to a clever clergyman, Dr. Cartwright, that, as so many improvements had been made in spinning-machines, he would try to make a machine which would weave cloth. At first he was laughed at, and was told that it was quite impossible for any machine to copy the movement of a weaver's hand.

But Cartwright had a great belief in his own powers; and at last he knocked together a clumsy sort of machine which did weave in a slow and cumbrous way. He next set to work to improve it, with the help of some skilled mechanics, and, after a long time of patient labour, his machine was found to be able to weave patterns, and to do all that a weaver had done, only the machine did it much more quickly.

In 1803 the new power-loom, as it was soon called, was first tried in several factories, and was found to answer well. Since that time it has been greatly improved in many ways, so that now there are very few hand-looms to be found in our land, except in remote parts of Scotland and Ireland. The power-loom does the work more evenly, more quickly, and more cheaply.

At first water-power was generally used to work the new spinning-machines and the power-looms; and very many mills were built on swift-running rivers like those of Derbyshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Scotland. The cloth manufacture of our



A Modern Mule Spinning-machine.

southern and eastern counties began to decay, because there are hardly any swift rivers in these parts.

But another change was beginning to take place in our manufactures. Steam-power was found to be better than water-power, for the rivers would occasionally overflow and damage the mills, or else in a dry summer there might not be enough water to work the machinery.

Now, in the early years of this century, the steam-engine became of more use than ever it had been before. You can always work a steam-engine if you can get plenty of coal; and, to get the

coal cheaply, manufacturers began to make their factories and mills near the great coal-pits of Lancashire, Yorkshire, and the Midlands, and in the valley of the Clyde in Scotland.

That is the chief reason why our great manufacturing towns have grown up near the great coal-fields. To understand how this change came about, we must look at the work of the chief inventors of the steam-engine, Watt and Stephenson.

### JAMES WATT AND THE STEAM-ENGINE.

James Watt, who did so much to improve the steam-engine, was born in 1736 at Greenock, a sea-port at the mouth of the River Clyde. He was a delicate child, but he soon showed that he had great powers of thought and of reasoning. He was also fond of tools, and of trying to improve all his playthings. His father wisely encouraged this.

It is said that the boy once amused himself with making experiments on the steam which came from the boiling kettle on the hob, and that, by using a cup and a spoon, he found out how the steam could be condensed and become water again. Whether that be true or not, it is certain that he early made many experiments, some of which were with chemicals; and, by helping his father with the ropes and sails and ship's tackle, he grew to be clever with his hands.

It was soon decided that he should be a maker of instruments, such as compasses, parallel rulers, and the like. He went to Glasgow, and then to London, where he lived very sparingly on eight



James Watt.

shillings a week. In the war time (1756) he was afraid of being forced by the press-gang to go into the royal navy. He therefore returned to Glasgow, where he was employed in making instruments for the University.

His skill soon gained him notice from the professors, and one of them set him to repair a model of the queer old steam-engines of those days. This was a great opportunity for young Watt, who

began to think seriously about the many defects of this engine. He saw that there was a great waste of steam, and he set himself to work to remedy this. At length he contrived an ingenious plan for making the steam do far more work than it did in the old engine; and he is therefore considered the inventor of the modern steam-engine.

The old engines had mostly been used for pumping water out of mines; and Watt, in 1775, went to the tin mines of Cornwall to improve the engines there. It was slow and hard work, for the miners there did not at first like his new invention; but in a few years he altered nearly all the steam engines in Cornwall. Later on he made an engine to work a great hammer which would give three hundred blows a minute—a thing never dreamt of before. This and many other contrivances of his gained him a wide reputation; and when he went to Paris he was received by the learned men of that gay city, and had many talks with them about scientific improvements and discoveries.

After 1800 his steam-engine could be used by anyone, and many improvements were made in it; so that it began to be used more and more for working all kinds of machinery in the new large factories of the Midlands and the North. Watt now retired from active business life, but his advice was eagerly sought for all kinds of projects, and to the end of his long life he was glad to give it. He

gave his mind to the subject of making a steam-boat, and a steam-engine which would draw a carriage; but the honour of these inventions was to fall to others.

His great stores of knowledge and his genial kindly ways made him a most interesting companion. A lady has thus described him in his later years. "He had a broad Scottish accent, and gentle, modest, and unassuming manners. Yet when he entered a room, men of letters, men of science, military men, artists, ladies, and even little children, thronged around him. Ladies would appeal to him on the best means of planning grates, curing smoky chimneys, warming their houses, and getting durable colours. I can speak from experience of his teaching me how to make a dulcimer and improve a Jew's harp."

He received honours from the University of Glasgow, and from other learned bodies of our own and of other lands, and full of years and of honours he died in 1819, much respected by all who knew him, and by the far wider circle of those who valued his many important inventions.

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## GEORGE STEPHENSON AND THE LOCOMOTIVE.

About eight miles west of Newcastle-on-Tyne there is a mining village called Wylam. There, in a humble cottage, was born George Stephenson in



the year 1781. He was the second son of a poor fireman, who earned only twelve shillings a week, and had a struggle to bring up his children. Little George had a hard time of it. He was ill-clad and poorly fed, and soon had to mind his four younger brothers and sisters.

One of his chief duties was to keep them from being run over by the wagons of coal, which were drawn by horses on a railway just in front of their cottage. There was then no thought about getting the coal wagons drawn by a steam-engine; for, as we saw in last lesson, the steam-engine of those days was a clumsy contrivance, which was only used for pumping water out of mines. For a long time George's father was the fireman who looked after the fires of the pumping-engine at the Wylam coal-mine.

The boy's first employment was to look after the cows of a widow who lived near his home, for which he was paid twopence a day. He had a fair amount of spare time, and he used it in making clay models of the steam-engine. He and a friend of his even made a large model of the winding machine which drew loads up the pit; and great was their grief when some stupid persons smashed it.

George's father often had to move about in search of work, and the boy, when he was fifteen years old, was glad to be taken on as fireman at a

shilling a day. He at once began to study the working of his pumping engine, so as to be able to do his work well. By this means he became a skilled workman, and had his pay doubled. He loved his engine, and in his spare time often used to take it to pieces so as to understand all about it. He also went to a night-school, where he was taught to read and write, and at the age of nineteen he was proud to be able to write his own name.

When he was twenty-one years of age he married, and settled at a village on the river Tyne, a little below Newcastle. Still he kept on trying to improve himself, and spent his evenings in his own home, reading and thinking about machinery and inventions. After a few years he moved to Killingworth colliery, not far off; but his life there was saddened by the death of his young wife.

Nevertheless he threw all his energy into his work, and became well known as a repairer of pumping-engines. On one occasion the manager of a coal-mine came to him in despair, and said he would make him a man for life if he would pump the mine clear of water. Stephenson set the pumping-engine to rights, so that in two days it pumped all the water out, and the miners were able to go on with their work again.

In 1812 he was appointed engineer of the Killingworth coal-mine, with a salary of £100 a year. He spent most of this money and of what else he could

earn, in giving a good education to his only son Robert; for he said that he felt the need of it in himself, and was determined that his son should not labour under the same defect.

At this time, George began to study seriously the means of getting the coal-wagons drawn by a steam-engine instead of by horses; for though the horses dragged the wagons on rough iron rails, yet the wear and tear to the horses was very great. Many men had been planning and making engines which would draw a load; but they were very clumsy. They burnt a great deal of coal, and yet only went at a walking pace. So most people laughed at them and said that they would never do; and the workmen called them a perfect plague. An engine-driver, when asked how he got on with his engine, said, "We don't get on: we only get off."

Stephenson felt sure that he could make an engine which would do its work cheaply and well. The chief owner of the mine, Lord Ravensworth, believed in him, and helped him to begin making a "traveling engine", as it was called. He did his best; but his first engine (1814) was not a success. It dragged some trucks along at four miles an hour, but it cost quite as much as horses in doing the same amount of work.

GEORGE STEPHENSON (*Continued*).

George had always been very observant. He now saw what a waste of steam there was always hissing away from his engine; and he thought to himself, "If I can make that steam do more work, my engine will be more powerful". He therefore let the steam escape up the smoke chimney. It drove out the smoke far more quickly, and thus gave a better draught to the furnace, which burnt more brightly and so made steam faster.

Next year (1815) Stephenson made an engine which had this great improvement and several others. His new engine drew a heavy train of coal trucks at six miles an hour, and was found to do the work more cheaply than horses could do it. Shortly afterwards he made a railway in Durham eight miles long, on which his engines dragged the coal-trucks to the banks of the River Wear.

In those times explosions of gas or fire-damp in the collieries were terribly frequent. No one had yet devised a safety-lamp; and the miners worked with open lights at constant risk to their lives. For if an unguarded flame comes near to that dangerous gas, a frightful explosion takes place and all near it are killed. George Stephenson, after many experiments, found out that a light might be safely used inside fine wire-netting; and he made a safety-lamp something like that which Sir Humphry

Davy planned shortly after. The Davy lamp has some improvements on Stephenson's; but Stephenson's was invented first, and it has saved thousands of lives in the dangerous mines of the north of England.

In 1821, a new chance turned up for Stephenson, and he made the most of it. Mr. Pease of Darlington was planning a railway to take coal from the coal-mines near that town to the sea below Stockton-on-Tees. When Stephenson heard that the railway was about to be made, he and a friend went to call on Mr. Pease, and told him that the new engine at Killingworth colliery was worth fifty horses. His reasoning so convinced Mr. Pease, that it was decided that Stephenson's engines should be used on the new railway.

At last came the day for opening the Stockton and Darlington railway. Crowds of people assembled, for many of them expected to see Stephenson's engine blow up. Stephenson was there to drive his new engine, and it drew a long train at the rate of about twelve miles an hour, which was thought most wonderful.

This railway paid very well for coals, but very few passengers travelled by it. Its only passenger carriages were two or three dark and uncomfortable vans which were drawn by horses. People still went generally by coach, even between Darlington and Stockton, and it was thought a great marvel

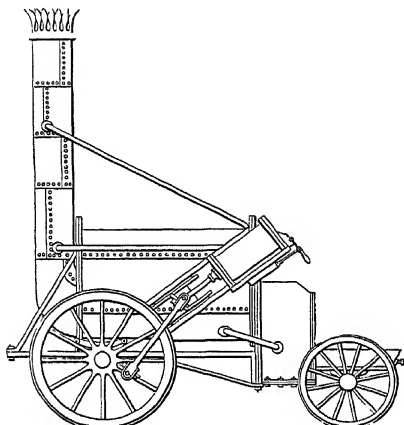
when the train and the mail-coach had a race, and the train won by a hundred yards.

The business men of Manchester heard about the success of this railway, and wanted to have a line between Manchester and Liverpool, so as to travel by it and get their goods more quickly. They appointed George Stephenson as engineer for their railway, and he had the help of his well-trained son, Robert. All sorts of people opposed the scheme. Farmers said that it would ruin their farms, that the noise of the engines would prevent cows grazing and hens laying eggs. Country gentlemen said that it would scare away all foxes and pheasants; and the ignorant rustics came out and attacked with pitchforks the men who measured the ground for the railway. The engineers had to hire prize-fighters to protect themselves and their men; sometimes they had guns fired a long way off, so as to draw gamekeepers off the scent.

Then there was a tunnel to be made under part of Liverpool, and not far from Manchester a firm track had to be made across a great bog called Chat-Moss. But the courage and patience of the Stephensons conquered all these difficulties.

Next there was to be a race on the line, to see which of the different engines planned for the line was the best. Stephenson's engine, the Rocket, was far the best, for the others kept breaking down. The prize of £500, offered by the directors to the

maker of the best engine, was therefore given to Stephenson; and at the public opening of the line, in 1830, a passenger train was drawn at the speed of about thirty miles an hour. The world then knew that the patient Northumbrian was a really



Stephenson's Locomotive—the "Rocket," 1829.

great man, and that his iron-horse was henceforth to be the king of the road. George Stephenson and his son had a share in making many other important railways. Among the great achievements of Robert Stephenson we may mention the high level bridge across the Tyne at Newcastle, the tubular bridges across the Conway River and the Menai Straits, and the immensely long tubular bridge across the river St. Lawrence at Montreal.

## THE GREAT REFORM BILL.

## 1. HOW WE CAME TO NEED A REFORM BILL.

Some of you have no doubt seen the change which has come over the life of a quiet old village when a great factory has been started there, or when a coal-mine has been sunk near by, or when a railway company has opened a station within easy reach of it. The steady-going village, with its humdrum, old-world ways, is rudely awakened. The whirr of machinery, or the rush of express trains, breaks the calm of rural life. The smoke of chimneys sullies the pure air, great heaps of slag begin to cover the meadows, and lines of new cottages branch out on all sides.

Now that will show you, on a small scale, the change which has been taking place on a very great scale in many parts of England and Scotland during the last hundred years. Before the time of Arkwright, Watt, and Stephenson, there were no factories driven by steam-power; but after their time, it became more and more the custom to make great factories where coal was abundant. So people began to move away from the quiet towns and villages of the east and south of England to the new manufacturing towns which sprang up in the north and Midlands; for men have to move to the place where they can get work.



Thus, there grew up rapidly in the years 1790-1830, a new, smoky, grimy, manufacturing England side by side with the old pastoral and agricultural England. And yet the new towns of England and Scotland, though they were growing large and prosperous, had scarcely any voice in the government of the country: that is to say, hardly any of them could send members to Parliament, to make laws and to have their interests looked after. The old rural England still governed the new manufacturing England.

Once upon a time nearly all Englishmen had had votes and could take part in electing a member of Parliament; but now by 1830 it had come to pass that most of them had no votes. In fact, many places which once had been prosperous, but had decayed, still had the right of electing members of Parliament. One place, Old Sarum, near Salisbury, was only a deserted green mound, yet it returned two members to Parliament. In Cornwall, there were thirteen villages, each of which sent two members to Parliament. On the other hand, great towns like Birmingham, Blackburn, Bradford, Brighton, Greenwich, Leeds, Manchester, Oldham, Sheffield, Sunderland, Wolverhampton, and others, returned no member. It was high time that this absurd system should be reformed.

In 1830 King George IV. died. His brother William IV. came to the throne, and a new

Parliament had to be elected. Then for the first time it was seen how strong was the wish for a reform of Parliament. Lord John Russell soon brought into the House of Commons a Bill by which he proposed to take members of Parliament away from all places of less than 2000 inhabitants; and towns having more than 2000 but less than 4000 inhabitants were to have only one member. Large towns like those just named were now to return members to the House of Commons.

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## 2. THE REFORM BILL IS PASSED.

A great outcry was raised against this Reform Bill, and it was thrown out by the House of Commons. The king was at once advised to dissolve Parliament, so that there might be an appeal to the country whether it would have reform or not. He did so; and the whole land rang with the cry, "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill". In the new House of Commons there was a large majority of members favourable to reform; and the Bill easily passed the House of Commons, only to be thrown out by the House of Lords. Then there was intense indignation through the country, and loud protests were made against the action of the Lords. Riots broke out in many towns. The worst was at Bristol, where the mob broke into the public buildings, burnt many im-

portant houses, and had control of the town for two days before they were dispersed by the soldiers.

Again the Bill was brought into Parliament, and again was rejected by the House of Lords. The reformers of Birmingham now threatened that they would march to London 200,000 strong, and compel the Lords to pass the Bill. It was in vain that the Duke of Wellington tried to form a Ministry and govern with a strong hand. He saw that it would lead to a civil war, and that it would be best to give way. He therefore advised the king to recall the Reform Ministry; and when the Bill, slightly altered, was again brought before Parliament, many of the Lords who had voted against it, walked out without voting. Thus the Bill became law (1832), after the most exciting struggle which our country had passed through since the coming of William of Orange.

Those who had feared that the measure would lead to mob rule, were soon found to be quite mistaken. The Reform Bill took power away from many small and decayed towns, and gave it to the new and prosperous towns, which only wanted to have fair play from the government. England now had rather fewer members of Parliament than before, while more members were to be returned by big towns or counties in Scotland, Ireland, and Wales. The Bill also gave votes to rather more people in the counties, while in towns those who

rented a house at £10 a year, or more, were to have the right of voting. This gave more political power to the middle classes, and to the more prosperous of the labouring classes, but it did not bring mob rule; on the contrary, it did much for the cause of order.

A great reduction was made in the number of days that an election might last. In former times elections used to go on as long as one voter an hour came to give his vote. Sometimes the voting went on for weeks, and large sums were paid for votes. The famous election of 1784 in Westminster dragged on for forty days amidst scenes of wild excitement and brutal violence. After 1832 an election could not last more than two days for a county, or one day for a town. So business was not disturbed as it was before, and far less bribery and rioting took place.

The Reform Bills of 1867 and 1884 have carried on the work begun in 1832, and now the House of Commons may be said to really represent the people of Great Britain and Ireland.

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## JOHN HOWARD, THE REFORMER OF THE JAILS.

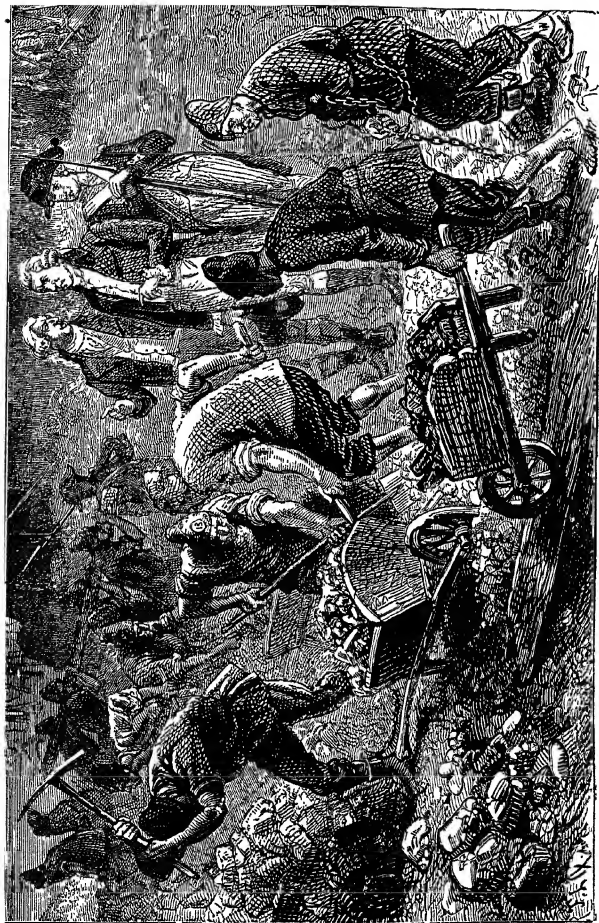
We are now to read about some noble men and women, who gave up a great part of their lives to serve their fellow-creatures, and to improve their

condition. They are as follows:—John Howard, who reformed the prison system; William Wilberforce, who did so much for the slaves in our colonies; Mrs. Fry, the friend of female prisoners; and David Livingstone, who gave his life for the cause of missions in Africa.

Little is known of the early life of John Howard, except that he was the son of a well-to-do London tradesman, that he was born in the year 1726, and was brought up at his father's country house at Cardington, near Bedford. The boy was delicate, and was thought to be rather stupid by those who did not understand his modest, kindly ways.

The death of his father left him with a fair amount of property, and he spent some time in travelling abroad, so as to improve his health. On his return he had a severe illness, and in gratitude to his landlady, for her care in nursing him, he married her, in spite of her being more than twice his age. The marriage was a happy one, and the death of his wife in 1755 was a sore trial to him.

In his grief there came the news that Lisbon had been devastated by an earthquake and fire, and by a great wave caused by the earthquake. Howard felt that he must go and do what he could to help the maimed and bereaved. On his voyage he was captured by a French privateer, and was thrown into a French prison. There he first felt the horrors which prisoners then had to endure, and when he



Howard visiting French Convicts

was set at liberty, he did all he could to help distressed persons.

Later on, in 1773, when he became Sheriff of Bedfordshire, the recollection of his own imprisonment led him to examine the state of the county jail. He found this and other jails to be ill-kept and dirty, while the prisoners were herded together, the vilest and most hardened criminals along with less guilty offenders, so that the worse soon defiled those who were more respectable. The jailers had no salaries paid them, but gained their living by extorting money from the prisoners, and treated them shamefully if they had none to give.

Indeed, Howard found that the head jailer at Northampton paid £40 a year for his office, which gave him the privilege of fining the prisoners under his charge. At Nottingham the prisoners who could pay well had separate cells; those who could not pay were all thrust down together into a deep, damp, gloomy cell, where they were often kept for years together. At Ely, Howard found that prisoners were often chained on their backs, and had an iron-spiked collar fastened round their necks.

These things so distressed Howard that he resolved to visit all the chief prisons of England, and to call the attention of government to the shocking condition in which he found them. In 1774 Parliament, as a result of Howard's labours, passed two laws about prisons: one was that a

prisoner who was proved to be innocent should pay no fee to the jailer; the other was that the walls and ceilings of all prisons should be cleaned and whitewashed at least once a year.

Howard next made a tour of the chief prisons of France. He boldly made his way into the famous Bastille, which soon afterwards fell before the fury of the Parisian mob. He then went through the Netherlands and parts of Germany. Most of the continental jails were almost as bad as those of England; but Howard found that the prisoners were set to work at some employment within the prison walls, or were even compelled to mend the roads.

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#### JOHN HOWARD (*Continued*).

The prisoners in our land were then kept cooped up in miserable dens, but were left in complete idleness. It was only natural that they got into worse habits than before, and that they fell ill of the jail fever and died by hundreds. After seeing the prisons of Germany, Howard felt more and more strongly that the jail should be not merely a place of punishment, but a place of correction, where the prisoner might have a chance of breaking with the bad past, and of learning some honest employment, which would give him a new start in life when he came out of prison.

Howard was not yet contented with his work,



although he had already travelled more than 13,000 miles in order to inspect English and foreign prisons. He found that there were still some out-of-the-way prisons in our own land which he had not visited, and he travelled about to see them. In one of the Yorkshire prisons there were such numbers of rats that Howard, as he went through the cells, had his hands badly bitten, while his dog was so injured that it had to be killed. And yet this prison was a place where men and women were kept shut up sometimes for months.

When Howard at last published his book, *The State of Prisons*, it was most eagerly read. Till then hardly anyone had thought about prisoners; or, if people had thought about their miseries, they had only shrugged their shoulders, and said that men and women ought to take the more care to keep out of prison. And yet it was not so easy then as it is now to keep out of prison. Very many small offences were punished by long imprisonment. Men who set a rick on fire, or who stole a horse, or goods to the value of ten shillings, were even hanged. Out of 678 persons hanged in London during the years between 1749 and 1771, as many as 606 were hanged for crimes which we do not now punish with death.

Howard's book set men thinking on the evils of our whole system of punishment. They saw that the laws and the prisons, as they were then, only

made men worse and more brutal; and since Howard's day our laws have become more humane and just. Howard was now known all over Europe for his labours on behalf of prisoners, and in England he was often called the prisoner's friend.

An event at one of the London jails showed his wonderful influence over prisoners. The soldiers in one of the military jails in London had mutinied, had killed some of their keepers, and held the place against all comers. Howard at once offered to go and quiet them. In vain did his friends warn him that he would be killed. Alone and unarmed he went to the prison, and by his calm presence and kindly words he soothed the passions of the mutineers. They handed to him a list of their grievances, and when he gave his word that their wrongs should be attended to, they went quietly back to their cells.

Howard went over all the chief prisons of Europe, from Sweden to Malta, from Portugal to Russia; and in his second visit to the land of the Czars he met his death. The Russians were then fighting the Turks; and while the good Englishman was tending the sick at the scene of war, he caught the plague and died (1790). Princes and generals of the Russian army, as well as thousands of soldiers and peasants, followed his remains to the grave where he was buried many hundreds of miles away from his English home; and all over Europe it

was felt that mankind had lost one of its best and noblest sons.

John Howard was not one of those who wander far afield and neglect the people of their own village. He built model cottages for the villagers of Cardington, and opened a school for their children.

To commemorate his self-denying labours, a statue was afterwards raised to his memory in St. Paul's Cathedral, and another has lately been erected in the town of Bedford; but the best of his statues are the clean and well-ordered prisons which have now everywhere replaced the foul dens where prisoners used to be herded together and debased.

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### WILLIAM WILBERFORCE, THE FREER OF THE SLAVES.

William Wilberforce came of an old Yorkshire family, and was born at Hull in 1759. His health was delicate, and early in life his body was so slight and puny that he afterwards used to say that if he had been born among the ancient Romans, he would have been left to die in infancy. His mind, however, was soon found to be keen and intelligent; and when he was sent to the Hull Grammar School, he could read so well that his master used to set him on a table to read aloud, to show the other boys how to read.

Not only was he quick at learning, but he was kind of heart; and when he was only fourteen years of age he declared his hatred of the slave-trade and of all slavery. This noble hatred of all that was mean and base also kept him from the evil which he might have got from some bad companions at the University of Cambridge, and later on in London. He shook off their evil influence, and began to show himself a power for good.

When he entered Parliament he soon became a very good speaker, and he enjoyed the close friendship of the great statesman William Pitt. He was pained by the wickedness which he saw all around him, and in 1786 he determined to give his life completely to the service of God and of his fellow-men. He said, "God had set before me two great objects, the suppression of the slave-trade and the improvement of manners". For this last he did much; but his work for putting down the slave-trade was even more important.

In time past negro slaves had actually been sold in a slave-market at Bristol and other English ports. That was no longer allowed, but the slave-trade was then carried on mostly by English ships. Negroes from the west coast of Africa were captured by our sailors. Often their villages were burnt and much blood was shed, before a sufficient number of negroes were captured to make a ship's cargo. Then they were driven to the shore, were forced on board

the boats, then on the ship, and had their arms, and feet fastened by chains. They were packed as close as they could lie, and all the exercise they had was to get up and jump in their chains. This they were compelled to do, as it was thought to be a means of preserving their lives. But, as the voyage often lasted more than two months, a very large number of the poor prisoners generally died on the voyage, and their bodies were thrown overboard. Then, when the ship reached America or the West Indian Islands, the miserable survivors were sold as slaves to the planters, and were sent to work in the sugar plantations.

This dreadful trade in human flesh brought in large gains to the ship-owners, and also to the planters, who got more work done by these negro slaves than could be done by white men under that burning sun. So, when Wilberforce and another good man named Clarkson began to urge our people to put a stop to this trade, there was a great outcry raised by ship-owners and sugar merchants.

Time after time Wilberforce brought into Parliament a Bill for putting a stop to these evils; but the Bill was thrown out, sometimes by the House of Commons, sometimes by the House of Lords. The great war with France broke out, and William Pitt, who had begun to do something for the freeing of the slaves, was quite taken up by the war. But after Pitt's death another great statesman, Charles

James Fox, came into power. In 1806 he proposed to Parliament a Bill for preventing British subjects seizing and selling slaves, and it was carried by a very large majority. Since that time no British ships have been allowed to seize slaves, and every slave who sets foot on a British ship is a free man.

Though slaves might not be seized and sold, yet they were still allowed to be kept in our colonies. For twenty-seven years Wilberforce and his friends struggled hard to get them freed. At last, just at the time when Wilberforce was lying on his death-bed, Parliament voted that £20,000,000 should be given to the slave-owners in our colonies if they would free their slaves; and ever since Queen Victoria came to the throne there have been no slaves in any part of the British Empire.

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### ELIZABETH FRY, THE FRIEND OF WOMEN PRISONERS.

Elizabeth Gurney, who became by marriage Elizabeth Fry, was born at Norwich in 1780. Her family was a well-known and wealthy Quaker family of that city, and she was brought up in the quiet homely ways of that benevolent body of Christians. Though she had some longings for grand society, yet she early came to feel that her chief duty was to try to improve the lives of those around her.

After she married a Quaker, Mr. Fry, she went to live in London, and was distressed at the misery and vice of the great city.

One day in the street a woman asked her for money, and held out an infant who was suffering



Elizabeth Fry.

from whooping-cough. Mrs. Fry said she would find out if she really did need help, and tracked her home. It then appeared that the woman "farmed" a number of young children, whom she made use of in begging; and often she let them die, and concealed their deaths, so as to keep on receiving the money paid to her for their board.

This dreadful case opened the eyes of Mrs. Fry to the horrors of the London slums in those days, and she and her friends did their best to start schools for the children, and in times of distress they relieved those who needed help most. She always tried to find out what was their real condition, by visiting them and seeing for herself what were their difficulties; and many were the blessings showered on the head of "Lady Bountiful", as

she was called. It is worthy of notice that she was the first who ever started a soup-kitchen in time of distress.

Some of her Quaker friends asked her to visit the prisons, and do what she could for female prisoners. In 1813 she and her sister accordingly visited Newgate prison in London. There they found about 300 women herded together, even those who had not been tried being kept along with those who were condemned. There, too, were children, learning wickedness and foul language in their earliest years. The two visitors seemed like angels of mercy coming into this den of despair and vice, and before leaving they uttered prayers for the women, and saw that some were softened by their message of love.

On returning home, Mrs. Fry set her family at once to work to make clothes for them, and after a time she began regular visits to jails, and started a school for the children of the prisoners. The work at the outset was most disheartening and appalling. The mothers were quite violent in their desire to have their children taught. One of the teachers says of them: "The railing was crowded with half-naked women, struggling together most violently for the first place, and begging most boisterously". She quite shuddered when she was locked in with these wild creatures.

Mrs. Fry and her friends soon formed a "Society



for Improving Female Prisoners". The women were to be employed in needlework, knitting, or any suitable work, and were to promise not to use any bad language. Monitors were to be chosen by them, to keep order and carry out the rules. Gradually these rules came to be observed; the prisoners became more orderly, and paid more and more attention to the advice and teaching of the visitors.

The officials of the prison wondered at the change which had come over the prisoners. The news spread abroad that the wolves of Newgate had become lambs under Mrs. Fry's kind influence; and soon there was a general desire that all prisoners should be fitly employed. John Howard had urged this, but it had not been carried out—at least, not for female prisoners. Mrs. Fry travelled about to different jails of our land and of the Continent, and by her efforts the arrangements for prisoners were much improved.

She also interested herself in the convicts sent over the seas, and persuaded our government to take more care of them, both during the voyage and in the convict settlements. Indeed, our people began to demand that all the cruel laws and customs of earlier days should be done away with, and that prisoners should be punished, not for revenge, but so as to improve them; and this has been more and more the case both with our laws and with prison rules. Thus, her work was scarcely less important

than that of John Howard. Like him, she was not afraid of speaking words of wise advice to kings and queens on the treatment of prisoners; and when she died in 1845, she was esteemed and beloved by rich and poor, by princes and still more by prisoners.

### THE STORY OF DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

David Livingstone came of a Highland family, one of whose members was slain at Culloden fighting for the Stuarts. Later on the family removed from their island home off the west coast of Scotland to the village of Blantyre, near Glasgow. David's father used to sell tea in the neighbouring villages, and he also distributed tracts and useful books. He was a good man, and he brought up his children strictly but kindly, so that they might do the best for themselves in the time to come.

David Livingstone was the second son, and his bright and lovable ways made him the life of the home. At the age of ten he was sent to the village factory as an apprentice, and in due course he became a spinner and received wages. The first half-crown which he earned he carried home with great pride, and laid in his mother's lap. He soon began to spend part of his slender earnings on books. He learned Latin at a night-school, and often used to sit up till midnight, though he had

to be back at the factory next morning at six. He also used the little spare time in the day at his books, and he persevered with his studies until he could remember what he read amidst the noise of



David Livingstone.

the machinery. In this way he became a well-read lad, and his knowledge was of great use to him in his later years.

Livingstone grew up to be a God-fearing and diligent young man; and in 1836 he determined to become a medical missionary, that is, he desired to heal the bodies of the heathen as well as teach the Christian religion. To gain the knowledge

which would fit him for his work, he, in 1836, became a student at the University of Glasgow; but after each term was over he returned to work at the factory, so as to earn money which would meet some of his expenses. At Glasgow he was much respected for his courage and strict sense of duty. In fact, it was said of him that fire, water, and stone-walls would not stop him from doing his duty to the uttermost.

After further preparation in London, Livingstone set sail in 1840 for South Africa. That land was not then the settled flourishing colony which it now is. The white men were few and scattered, and the natives were despised and ill-treated by the Dutch settlers. He at once made up his mind to protect the natives against the injustice of the Dutch colonists in or near the Transvaal.

After a time he made his way to the interior in a wagon drawn by bullocks. This long and tedious journey took him over vast and almost arid plains, peopled by very few settlers, and still haunted by the wild ostrich and the hyæna, or further north by the lion and the elephant. Rugged, hilly country had to be traversed, or the wagon had to be dragged across the rocky beds of streams and rivers. By such means as these did settlers and missionaries then make their way to the almost unknown interior of South Africa. On arriving at his destination, Livingstone spent a little time at a mission station,

where most of the natives had become Christians. But he longed to go further north, among the tribes which were still heathen savages. So he travelled away northwards, settled down in their midst, learned their language, and cured many of their sick by his medicines. Little by little he won their confidence, and some of them became Christians.

His fame spread into other tribes beyond; and when he asked a chief of those parts whether he would like him to come and settle there, the chief replied, "Oh, I shall dance, if you do; I shall get all my people to hoe a garden for you, and you will get more sweet-reed and corn than I do". In his frequent journeyings he generally rode on the back of an ox. On arriving at a place where they meant to pass the night, his native helpers used to unyoke the oxen from the wagon, then kindle a fire to cook the food and make coffee, after which the fire would be kept up so as to scare away lions and other dangerous animals.

On one occasion a lion leaped at him, seized him by the arm with his terrible teeth, and then stood over him growling furiously at Livingstone's men, who rushed up to protect their master. One of them severely wounded the lion by a well-aimed shot. The lion then sprang towards this man, but speedily fell dead from the effect of the wound. When Livingstone was asked what his thoughts were when the lion stood growling over him, he

quietly replied, "I wondered which part of me he would eat first". This shows the calm courage of the missionary, even when in the jaws of death.

In course of time Livingstone married the daughter of Dr. Moffat, who had long been a missionary in those parts. His wife helped him in many ways, especially in training the young children of the natives at the settlement. But he felt it to be his duty to move on and found other mission-stations. He also wanted to explore the country, to see if British settlers could be planted out there, and improve it by peaceful means. He wrote that he would open up Africa, or die in the attempt.

#### DAVID LIVINGSTONE (*Continued*).

After long and weary travels, Livingstone made his way to the great river Zambesi. He was enchanted with the scenery. This broad and noble river flowed through richly wooded country, often among lofty hills. At one place it plunged down into a deep chasm, making one of the finest waterfalls in the world. The spray from the seething waters rose high, forming a cloud which could be seen from afar. These wonderful falls were called by Livingstone the Victoria Falls, in honour of Queen Victoria.

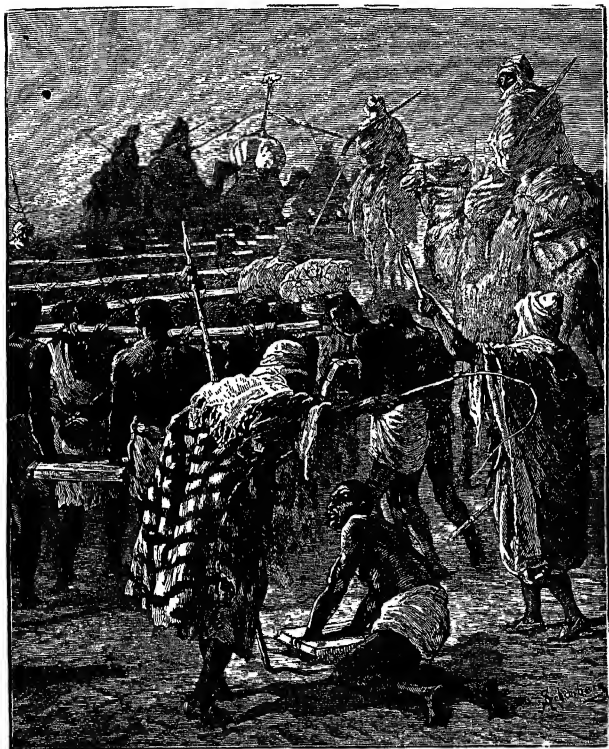
But though the scenery was grand and beautiful, the natives were fierce and degraded. At one

place Livingstone saw them hack some prisoners in pieces, and cast their limbs into the river to be devoured by crocodiles. He was unable to stop this cruel act, and hurried away in horror. He travelled along up the course of the river, and came across a sight which saddened him even more than the last. He saw gangs of slaves, fastened together by long ropes, being taken off to the coast to be sold to the slave-dealers. He then made up his mind that he would do his best to bring honest trade into this fair country, and so put a stop to the traffic in human flesh.

At last, sick and weary, he came to the Atlantic coast; then, turning back, he made his way down the course of the Zambesi right to its mouth in the Indian Ocean. This journey had been accomplished once previously, for a Portuguese officer with soldiers had travelled across Africa from ocean to ocean; but Livingstone made this great journey unprotected, save by some peaceful native attendants, and though he passed through fierce tribes, yet he never shed any blood. He always trusted to kindness to melt the hearts even of savage chiefs, and he kept up his peaceful attitude even when a club was whirled over his head. For this reason, and for his splendid work in an unknown land, he received a warm welcome when he returned home for a time of rest.

“ Before Livingstone’s days the middle of Africa

was thought to be a vast sandy desert where only



A Slave-gang on the March to the Coast.

camels and ostriches could exist. Our people were surprised to read in Livingstone's description of his



travels that it was a beautiful land, teeming with countless tribes and watered by noble rivers. So he was honoured by the universities and by learned societies, as well as closely questioned by the merchants of Manchester about the prospects of trade.

Before long he returned to Africa, and made his way up the Zambesi and one of its tributaries. He was the first white man to see the great Lake Nyassa, on the banks of which he hoped to found a colony, and to open up a better sort of trade than the slave trade. His life was soon clouded over by the death of his wife, who was carried off by fever; and for the first time he felt that he would gladly die.

But his life-work was not yet done. He established a mission-station near the great lake. It was to consist of young men from the universities; but the difficulties from the slave-traders and from the unhealthy climate were so great that it then had to be given up. This was another severe blow to him.

After another short time of rest in England, this energetic Scotsman again set to work to discover an easy means of reaching the heart of Africa, so as to beat the slave-traders by peaceful means. On returning to Africa, he landed at Zanzibar and made his way overland to Lake Nyassa. Everywhere he found tribes making slaves of men of other tribes, and he did his best to show them how wrong this was.

Then he set himself to find the sources of the great River Nile. He laboured long and hard, and discovered two more large lakes. For some years he was quite alone in the heart of that dark continent. At last, when he was in the depths of distress, he was found and relieved by Mr. H. M. Stanley (1871). This adventurous traveller tells us that Livingstone looked pale, weak, and weary, and his hair and beard were almost white: but Stanley noticed that, even so, the natives revered him and never passed his little hut without calling a blessing on his head.

The old explorer was overjoyed at hearing the English tongue again after being alone in Africa for so many years; but he would not return home, because he felt that his work in Africa was not done even yet. He wanted to make sure that the rivers which he had found were the sources of the Nile, and not of the Congo. But this last journey, made in 1873 across marshes and other fever-stricken parts, was too much for his weary frame, and he became weaker and weaker. He had one day's severe illness, and then early next morning his faithful native followers found him dead. He was kneeling as if in prayer. Thus he died, praying that Africa might be saved from the curse of the slave-trade. For that cause he had made his many travels, and for Africa he laid down his life.

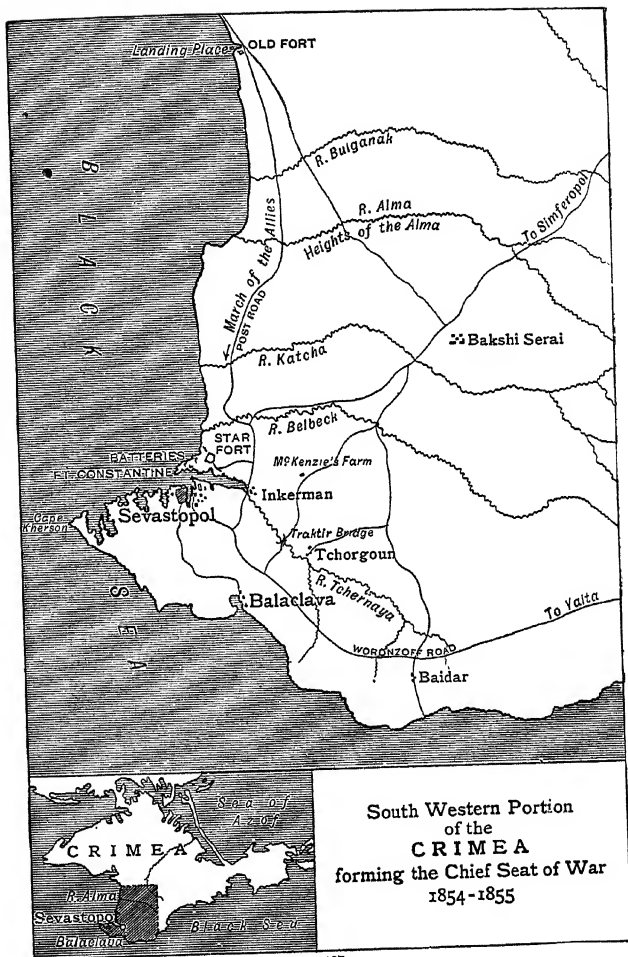
His native followers did what they could to preserve the body of their beloved master. They carried it reverently all the way to Zanzibar; and now the bones of Livingstone lie in Westminster Abbey, where Britain buries the greatest of her heroes.

### THE CRIMEAN WAR.

The most serious war in which our country has been engaged since Waterloo was the Crimean War, which arose chiefly from the following causes.

Centuries ago a fierce and warlike people called the Turks had crossed from Asia into the land which we call Turkey. They conquered the Christian peoples there, and were for a long time the terror of Europe. Gradually their power waned, and in the early years of this century they were twice conquered by the Russians. Russia hated the Turks because they were Mohammedans, and oppressed the Christian peoples of Turkey, who were of the same religion as the Russians. In 1853 the powerful Czar, or Emperor, of Russia, claimed the right to interfere between Turkey and her Christian subjects; and when Turkey refused to grant his claim, he sent troops into Moldavia and Wallachia, which were then parts of the Turkish Empire.

France and England began to take sides with



Turkey, because they did not want Russia to become master of the Turkish lands. In 1854 they declared war against Russia, and sent out great fleets and armies to Varna, a Turkish port on the Black Sea. But the Turks had already beaten the Russians<sup>o</sup> on the Danube; and as the Russians were afraid that Austria would attack them from behind, they withdrew from Turkey.

Our people were not satisfied with this, but said that the time had come to prevent Russia becoming mistress of the Black Sea. Orders were therefore sent from London, and also from Paris, that the allied fleet and armies should cross over to the Crimea, and destroy the great Russian port and fortress, Sevastopol. So the English and French forces were landed in the Crimea, and by a brave rush our soldiers drove the Russians away from the steep slopes of the Alma.

Then the allies marched towards Sevastopol, and perhaps they might have taken it if they had made a vigorous attack at once. But this was thought to be too risky; and they marched round Sevastopol so as to have the supplies from their ships in the little harbour of Balacava. After some delays they began to attack Sevastopol and its forts.

But by this time the Russians were strong enough to try to cut off the British army from its ships at Balacava; and this led to the famous battle of Balacava. It was a confused battle, and there were

strange mistakes made on both sides. At first the Russians drove back our men and our Turkish allies; and a great square of gray-coated Russian horsemen rode on towards our Heavy Brigade. Strange to say, they stopped when they were near our men; and our dragoons, charging by squadrons into the dense mass, threw it into complete disorder, and in five minutes drove it away in headlong retreat.

A strange blunder on our side then led to the famous charge of the Light Brigade. The officer in command mistook the meaning of an order from the Commander-in-chief, and ordered his gallant riders to charge the Russian army, numbering some 25,000 men. On swept our brave horsemen into the "valley of death". The smoke of the enemy's cannon and musketry fire closed around them, but now and again the scarlet lines could be seen sabring those who tried to stop their charge. On they rode right into a Russian battery, put the gunners to the sword, and routed some Russian squadrons of cavalry. But then the Light Brigade could do no more, and it had to ride back, breaking through the Russians who had formed in its rear. The enemy's cannon again made many a brave horseman bite the dust, and out of 670 men of the Light Brigade only 195 rode back to our camp.

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THE CRIMEAN WAR (*Continued*).

At Balaclava we only just managed to hold our own; and as the Russians were always getting reinforcements, the position of the French and British armies outside Sevastopol became very serious. The fortress itself had been made very strong by the Russians, and they made another desperate attempt to drive away our troops.

Hidden by the mists of a November morning, a large force of Russians crept up the ravine which led on to the heights of Inkerman. Our men there were few in number; but they made a splendid defence, dealing death among the crowded columns of the enemy as they marched up the ravine. For four hours the thin red lines of the British soldiers kept at bay the dense gray columns of the Russians, till help was sent to our hard pressed men by the French; and when cannon were dragged up to fire on the Russian columns, these fell back towards Sevastopol with fearful losses.

But the Russian winter soon proved to be a far worse foe than the Russians themselves. A terrible storm dashed many of our ships to pieces. Our troops were soon in want of supplies of proper food and clothing for the bitter wintry weather which now set in; and in the hard service in the trenches hundreds of brave fellows perished from cold and want.

. Gradually better arrangements were made. A short railway was constructed from Balaklava harbour to the camp; and the siege was pushed on



Night in the Trenches before Sevastopol.

with more vigour. But the Russians had made some very strong earthworks to defend Sevastopol; and they could get plenty of reinforcements from the north. So the siege dragged on through the spring and summer of 1855. The British cannonade



was steadily kept up, and the Russians fell in heaps behind their walls and earthworks.

At last, in September, 1855, the French made a great effort and captured a strong Russian earthwork called the Malakoff; but our men were beaten back from the Redan, which was more difficult to hold against the Russian fire. All the same, the Russians felt that they could hold out no longer in Sevastopol. So they burnt the few remaining ships, blew up their powder magazines, and in September, 1855, they left the great fortress which for nearly a year had defied the attacks of two armies.

Peace was soon made, but most of the results of the war have entirely vanished. The Sultan did not take advantage of the opportunity then given of governing the Turkish Empire justly, and in 1876 many of his Christian subjects rose in revolt against the bad government. Russia recovered from her heavy losses in the Crimean War, and in 1877 she nearly succeeded in overthrowing the Turkish power. Turkey is now weaker than ever, and her government is as bad as ever it was; but many of her Christian subjects have gained independence from her control, and have formed the flourishing states Roumania, Servia, and Bulgaria.

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## THE INDIAN MUTINY.

## 1. THE OUTBREAK.—RELIEF OF LUCKNOW.

We have read about the exploits of Clive, Warren Hastings, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, which so greatly extended our Indian possessions. After Wellesley's time they continued to increase, and the addition of several states formed our Indian provinces into a vast Empire.

This was about the time when we were fighting Russia in the Crimea; and the discontented rulers and classes in India thought it a good time to try to throw off the British yoke. Several of the sepoys in our service were annoyed by some new rules, and a spark kindled the discontent into a fierce devouring flame which nearly destroyed our dominion in India.

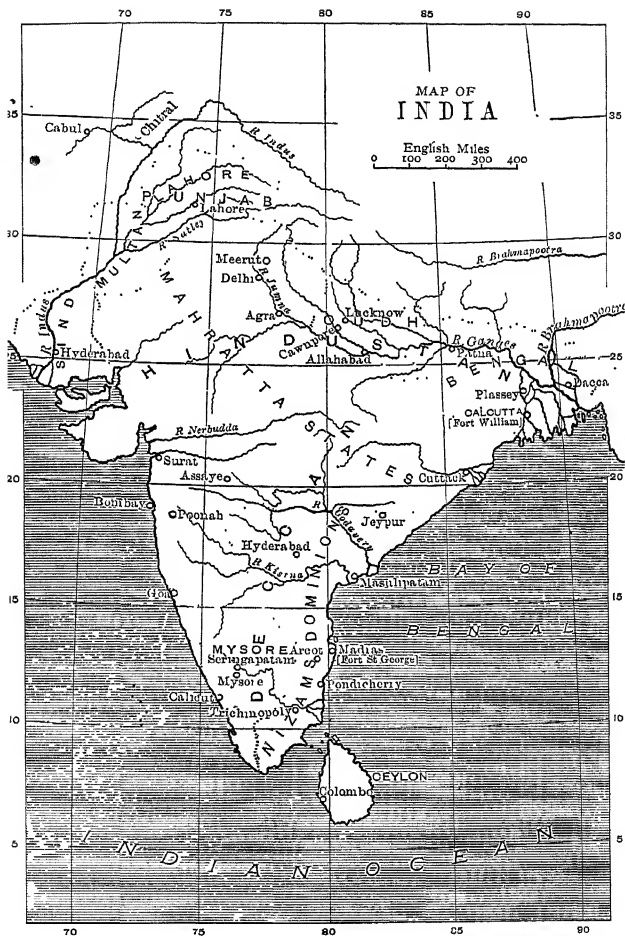
It happened in this way. A new musket was about to be distributed to our soldiers in India; and the cartridges were to be smeared with the fat of the ox or the pig. Now, nearly all our sepoys were either Hindoos or Mohammedans. The former worship the ox as a sacred animal: the latter loathe the hog as unclean. For these reasons they refused to touch the cartridges; and when the news got about that they would have to use them, they began to mutiny.

The first serious outbreak of the sepoys was at Meerut (May, 1857), where they killed several of

the British officers and even the women and children. Then they marched off to Delhi and seized that great city and fortress. They would have gained the large stores of gunpowder kept there for our troops, if nine of our brave fellows had not defended the magazine as long as they could, and then blown up the powder along with five of their own number and scores of the mutineers.

Fortunately all India did not rise against us. The south and the extreme north-west remained faithful, but the revolt was general in the great district of the Ganges and its numerous tributaries. At Cawnpore a native prince ordered his men to butcher the British men, women, and children who fell into his hands, though he had promised to spare their lives. Elsewhere our officers and their wives suffered cruelties too horrible to be described; but this made our soldiers burn with a desire for vengeance, and they often scattered in flight ten times their own number of the mutineers.

The chief interest of the struggle centred at Delhi and Lucknow. At the latter place a small British garrison of 900 men and 700 faithful native troops was cooped up in the walls of the Residency, a large building which had been made as strong as possible to resist attack. Soon the place was besieged by crowds of mutineers, one of whose cannon-shots killed the brave commander, Sir Henry Lawrence.



For eighty-seven days the defence was kept up, with splendid courage by the little garrison. Cut off though they were from all news of the outside world, they held their own in spite of constant and fierce attacks of the mutineers, in spite of bad food, intense heat, cholera, and small-pox. At last, when all hope seemed to be gone, they heard the sound of distant firing.

It was Sir Henry Havelock and his brave troops, who had driven before them clouds of rebels, and amidst great difficulties were now forcing their way through the crowded streets of the city of Lucknow. Imagine the joy with which the weary and heroic garrison welcomed their deliverers.

## 2. SIR COLIN CAMPBELL QUELLS THE MUTINY.

Meanwhile at Delhi there had been events almost as exciting as those at Lucknow. Delhi is a vast fortified city, and its walls extend in a circuit of more than  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles. It was held by 40,000 rebel sepoys, and we could, even at the end, muster only 9000 men to try to plant the Union Jack again on its walls. Our small force at first made no serious attack, but occupied a ridge a mile or two from the walls. There they were often attacked by the rebels, but they clung to that ridge through the fierce heats of the summer.

The arrival of reinforcements gave new energy to our men. Our siege-guns began to batter breaches in the northern part of the wall; and at



Charge of the Highlanders at Lucknow.

last everything was ready for an assault on the great city. Shortly before dawn our men moved towards the massive walls, and as the sun rose they rushed upon the points which were to be attacked. Under a terrible fire of musketry they

managed to force their way up the walls, while others blew in one of the great gates. A few determined men rushed towards the gate and laid the bags of gunpowder. While doing this, most of them were shot down by the rebels on the walls, but two or three were left, and these fired the gunpowder and blew in the gate.

Then there was fierce fighting inside the walls for a long time. The rebels fought desperately from street to street, and from house to house; but British pluck prevailed, even over terrible odds, and Delhi was at last won (September, 1857). For a brief space some of our men gave themselves over to acts of vengeance, for their blood boiled when they thought of the cruelties of the mutineers; but order was soon restored by the efforts of the officers.

At Lucknow there was sharp fighting before the garrison could be completely rescued. The aid brought by Havelock had not been sufficient, and a second time the Residency had been besieged by the rebels. But more British troops were arriving from home, and they were led by the gallant Sir Colin Campbell to the second relief of Lucknow. With only 5000 men he drove aside large bodies of the rebels, and stormed some great buildings at Lucknow. One of these was captured by Captain Garnet Wolseley, who has since become famous.

After great difficulties the British garrison was rescued, and the men, women, and children were

removed from the place which they had firmly held for six months (November, 1857). But the constant over-work in intense heat had been too much for the brave Havelock, and just after leaving Lucknow



General Sir Colin Campbell.

he died. No British officer has ever shown himself braver in fight, or kinder and more generous to all men. He was the pattern of a Christian soldier, and his death was mourned by all our people.

The worst of the mutiny was now over, and by degrees the mutineers were beaten in Oude, and also in Central India. Other nations had quite expected that we should lose India; but the struggle there showed the bravery of British soldiers, and proved that our men, even under that burning sun,



never knew when they were beaten. That was one reason why they regained India, even when it seemed hopelessly lost to us. Another reason was that many of the peoples of India were contented with our rule, which they had discovered to be far better than that of their native princes.

Parliament now determined to make our government in India better than ever before, and decided that our dominions in India were too large to be ruled by the East India Company. The governing powers of that famous company have therefore since 1858 been discharged by our own government. Just laws have been made to satisfy the natives, great works have been carried out to make India more prosperous, and famines have been relieved. The peoples of India see that we desire their welfare, and they know that it is only our rule which keeps them at peace one with another.

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## OUR COLONIES IN THE WEST.

### 1. THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

We must now turn our attention to the growth of the chief groups of British colonies. We shall not have time to learn about the smaller groups, such as those in the West Indies and elsewhere. It will perhaps be enough if we learn about our

North American, Australasian,<sup>1</sup> and South African colonies.

Our Indian Empire cannot be called a colony. Its peoples have submitted to our rule; but that great land has not been colonized or peopled by Englishmen, and it never can be, because the heat is so intense that white men cannot live there all their lives.

A colony is a land which has been peopled, wholly or in part, by men of our own flesh and blood; and this has happened in our colonies in North America, Australia, and South Africa.

In two previous lessons we learnt about the loss of our chief American colonies, which in 1776 called themselves the United States of America. Many of their people did not want to be separated from the mother country, and they soon removed across the border, and settled in parts of Canada and of Nova Scotia, so as still to remain loyal to the British crown. About 20,000 of them settled in a part of Nova Scotia, which was soon declared to be a separate British colony, and was called New Brunswick.

Others settled in Upper Canada, *i.e.* the parts above Montreal, on the great river St. Lawrence; and their coming made the British people far stronger in Canada than ever they had been before. The French, who form nearly all the population of

<sup>1</sup>The name Australasia includes all the islands off or near the coast of Australia. It also includes New Zealand.

Lower Canada, had remained loyal to the British rule, even when the troops of the United States invaded their land and tempted them to revolt.

And yet our government in London long afterwards feared that Canada would revolt as the United States had done. To prevent any chance of that, Canada was divided into two provinces, which were kept as much apart as possible. But this plan worked very badly. The French of Lower Canada were on bad terms with the British population of Upper Canada; and both provinces were discontented with their government.

In the first year of Queen Victoria's reign, there was a revolt among the French. It was soon put down by our troops; and then our government decided to unite the two provinces, and let Canada manage its own affairs much more than before. From that time (1841) the British part of Canada has gone on increasing in population and prosperity far more than the French part. The French cling to their old manner of life and of farming, while the English and Scots of Upper Canada have done far more by their efforts to develop their part of the country.

For instance, a great railway, called the Grand Trunk Railway, was opened; and in order to connect Montreal with the United States, a very expensive bridge was made over the great river St. Lawrence. It is a lofty tubular bridge, more than 3000 yards

long, and rests on twenty-four huge stone buttresses, built so as to resist the pressure of the blocks of ice in-spring. When the first warm weather breaks up the ice of the great river, the ice-floes come down with terrific force. Sometimes they are piled one on the other until they topple over on the top of the embankment which leads to the bridge.

In 1858 the first telegraphic cable under the sea was laid between the west of Ireland and Newfoundland, and since then several cables have been laid between the old world and the new.

## 2. FROM OCEAN TO OCEAN.

Canada and the other British colonies in North America continued to thrive, but little was done to unite them till 1864. Then plans for uniting them were discussed, and thanks to Sir John Macdonald, all those colonies (except Newfoundland) agreed to form the Dominion of Canada, which includes all our North American colonies from Nova Scotia on the Atlantic to Vancouver Island on the far-off Pacific. Since then the Dominion of Canada has become more and more prosperous.

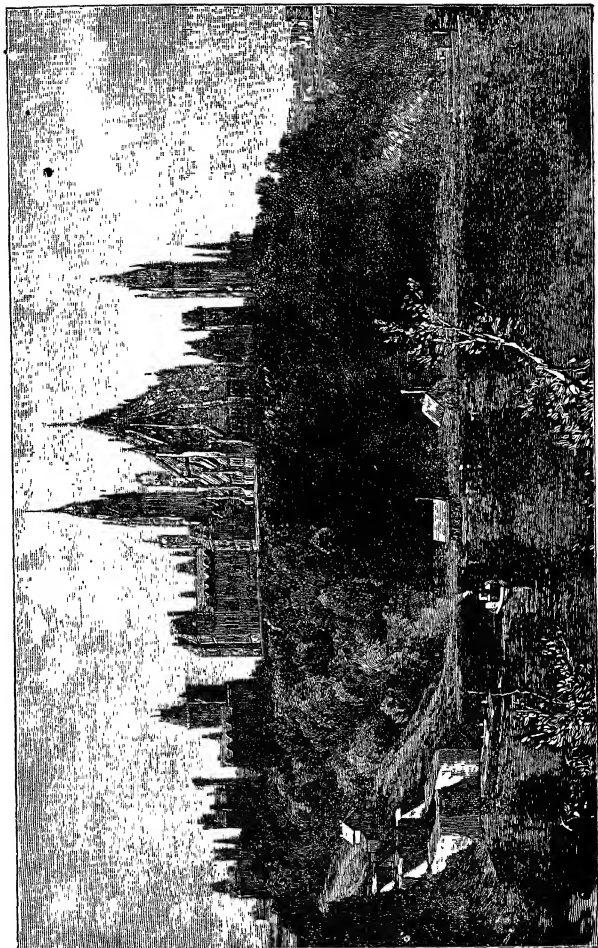
One great drawback to Canada is the long and severe winter. Great rivers like the St. Lawrence are frozen over, and the ice is so thick that powerful steamers cannot force their way through. So, for five months of every year, there is scarcely

any river traffic even between Montreal and Quebec. In some of the distant parts of the great north-west the winter is very dreary, and the settlers on their lonely farms often hear nothing but the moaning of the icy wind and the still more dismal howling of wolves. The ground is frozen to a depth of five feet or more.

But when the spring comes the ice breaks up on the rivers, and grinds its way down on the swollen streams. The frost and snow have fertilized the soil, and nature soon puts on her robe of freshest green. The spring corn begins to shoot luxuriantly, for the heat of the sun draws up the frost and moisture from the subsoil, forming a kind of natural hot-bed. The corn grows so rapidly that the harvest is ripe before it is in England, and the yield of wheat is generally quite as large as it is on our best corn-lands.

In British Columbia, which is on the side of the Rocky Mountains sloping towards the Pacific Ocean, the climate is much milder and more like our own. It is a land of wild mountains, and large swiftly-running rivers in which are swarms of salmon and other large fish. It has some fine harbours on the Pacific Ocean, and steamers ply from them to Japan and China.

The Canadian Pacific Railway has been made, so as to connect the ports of British Columbia with the ports on the River St. Lawrence and the



The Parliament Buildings, Ottawa.

Atlantic; and now the quickest way from England to China is by Montreal, Winnipeg, and British Columbia, and thence by steamer across the Pacific.

The Canadian Pacific Railway crosses thousands of miles of prairies, which used to be desolate, but are now gradually being settled by farmers. It then climbs up the spurs of the Rocky Mountains, crosses them through a very picturesque pass, and by means of several tunnels. It then descends their slopes towards the Pacific through scenes of wild grandeur, piercing through dark forests and crossing wide torrents, till it comes to the more level ground near the capital—New Westminster.

When we consider the magnitude of this and other public works, we may well be proud of the enterprise of our Canadian kinsmen, which has opened up the fertile plains of the west to be the happy homes of future generations.

## OUR ISLAND CONTINENT.

### 1. EXPLORATION AND GROWTH OF AUSTRALIA.

There are great differences between the Dominion of Canada and Australia. Canada is merely the northern part of a great continent. Australia is a vast island in the southern sea. Canada is a land of great lakes and of navigable rivers. The Australian lakes are merely useless swamps; the

rivers are often mere marshy pools connected by a feeble trickle of water, but after heavy rains they rapidly swell into raging torrents. In Canada the winter is long and intensely cold, while Australia, except in its most southerly parts, has no winter. It has been wittily said that in Australia you may ladle your butter out in a spoon, while in Canada it often has to be chopped with a hatchet.

Yet in these very different lands our countrymen have prospered equally, and the population of Australia and New Zealand is nearly as large as that of the Dominion of Canada. At first our settlement in Australia was very small and feeble.

You remember that Captain Cook discovered the Pacific coast of Australia, and proclaimed it to be British land. It was not till 1787 that any point of it was settled. In that year 757 convicts were sent out to form a settlement at Botany Bay, on the coast of New South Wales. In the next year they were removed to Sydney, a little farther north, on the lovely harbour, Port Jackson. Even at that more favourable position the difficulties were great, and the infant colony at first nearly perished of starvation.

Later on free settlers came out, and by degrees roads were made over the mountains, and sheep and cattle began to increase enormously. An adventurous young explorer named Bass sailed through the straits called after him, and when it



was thus proved that Van Diemen's Land (now called Tasmania) was an island, convicts were sent there, and formed the second Australian colony (1804). A party of convicts was also sent to Western Australia (1826), thus founding the third of those colonies.

A little later Captain Sturt started in a large boat, on the upper part of a great river which the native Australians called Murrumbidgee. He wanted to find out whether it flowed into a lake or into the sea. Floating down the stream, often through dense woods of gum-trees, he and his comrades at length came to a fine broad river, which is now called the Murray.

Several times they were in danger from the natives, who hurled spears and stones at them. The river seemed to dwindle away as it flowed through sandy and almost rainless wastes; and when they neared the sea they found no harbour and no ship waiting for them, but only a great shallow lagoon. Sorely discouraged and wearied, they had to row all the way back again against the stream. The toil under the fierce sun was so exhausting that Captain Sturt lost his eyesight, and one of his men went mad. It is by hardships such as these that new lands are opened up for settlement. In 1834 a colony was founded in South Australia, part of which Sturt and his men had discovered.



PAUL HATLEY

Sturt's Return Journey on the River Murray

The youngest of those colonies are Victoria and Queensland, which after 1850 became independent of the mother colony, New South Wales. Just about the time when Victoria became a colony, gold was discovered there in large quantities, and a wild rush for gold was made from all parts. Farmers left their land, tradesmen shut up their shops, and sailors deserted their ships, in the hope of making their fortune at the gold-fields. Soon most of them went back, sadder and wiser, and not much richer than before. In two or three years the craze was over, and matters settled down.

Though gold-mining has been and is profitable, yet the chief wealth of Australia is in the rearing of sheep and the growth of corn. Australian wheat and wool are about the best in the world. The vine and nearly all fruit-trees flourish in the fertile parts; and if the rainfall was more regular, Australia would be one of the richest lands in the world. But the long droughts often ruin the hopes of the farmer, and cause the death of thousands of sheep and cattle.

In spite of this great drawback, and in spite of the want of navigable rivers, Australia prospers. Her prosperity is a proof that Britons can overcome some of the difficulties even of nature herself.

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## 2. AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND.

• Many explorers have risked their lives, and some have lost their lives, in trying to find out whether there was any good land in the interior of Australia. Now there are millions of sheep feeding on the salt bush and scanty grass of the vast inland plains, and mining goes on briskly in some of the most desolate parts of Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia.

The great bulk of the population, however, lives on the coast region between Brisbane and Melbourne. These two towns, together with Sydney and Port Adelaide, are the chief ports; and huge steamers there take on board passengers for Europe, as well as wool, corn, wine, and frozen meat.

Tasmania has the best climate of any of the Australian colonies, and there all the English fruits can be grown to a size and perfection rarely reached in our own land.

New Zealand is perhaps still more like our island. It is often called the Great Britain of the South. The climate is much moister than that of Australia, and the rainfall is also like that of England. A well-known writer has said: "In New Zealand everything is English. The scenery, the colour and general appearance of the waters and the shape of the hills are very like those of the West of Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland. The mountains are

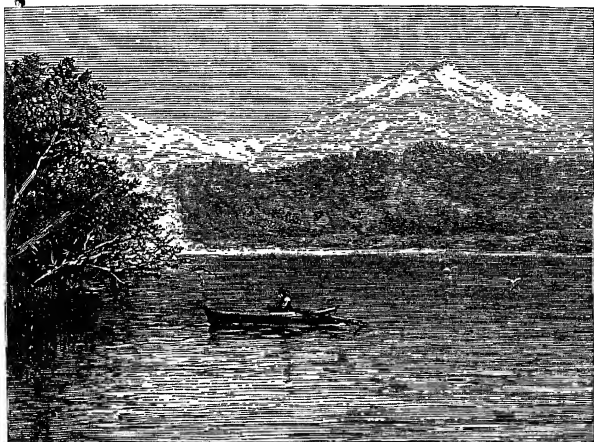
brown and sharp; the rivers are bright and rapid, and the lakes are deep and blue and are bosomed among the mountains. If a long-sleeping Briton could be set down among the Otago Hills, and told on awaking that he was travelling in Galway or in the West of Scotland, he might easily be deceived."

We have read about Captain Cook's voyage round New Zealand, and how he claimed it as British land. But not for sixty-six years was any successful attempt made to found a colony there. In 1839 a company was formed to buy land and form a settlement. A treaty was made with the powerful and war-like natives called Maoris. But in course of time there were disputes, and a war broke out, in which our troops were three or four times beaten by the brave natives before they were finally successful.

Now the natives are gradually dying out, as are the natives of Australia and the Red Indians in North America. The Maoris often sadly say: "As the white man's rat has killed our rat, so the European fly is driving our fly away. As foreign clover is killing our ferns, so the Maori himself will disappear before the white man."

These sad sentences will show that all European creatures and plants thrive in New Zealand. The North Island is hot enough to grow tropical plants and produce; while the southern end of South Island has a climate like that of Scotland, and sheep

and oxen thrive there. In the vast Canterbury Plains myriads of sheep are bred, and their flesh is often sent frozen in very cold chambers on board ship to us here at the opposite end of the world.



A Lake View in the South Island, New Zealand.

The other chief exports are wool, corn, and gold. New Zealand has such varied products that it may be described as a little world in itself.

Like the other Australasian colonies, New Zealand governs itself almost entirely. A governor is appointed by our home government; but almost all the political affairs of those colonies are in the hands of the men elected by the colonists themselves. The colonies do something towards defending

themselves, but the powerful arm of the mother country protects them on sea. Indeed, there is a special fleet kept in the Australian waters, partly at the expense of the chief Australian colonies.

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## OUR COLONIES IN THE DARK CONTINENT.

### 1. CAPE COLONY AND NATAL.

By far the most important of our colonies in Africa is Cape Colony. It is so called from the Cape of Good Hope at the south-eastern tip of that great continent. The Portuguese gave that name to the cape soon after they discovered it (1486), because, if they reached that cape, there was a good hope that they would reach India.

In those days men came to use the Cape route to India more and more; and the Cape was the chief place at which ships called between Europe and India. After some time the Dutch East India Company took possession of it, and jealously kept out all other settlers and traders. Indeed, many of their own settlers found the rules so irksome that they moved right away inland and formed other settlements.

At last the rule of the Dutch ceased. In 1795 an English fleet captured the settlement; and it has ever since belonged to us, except for a short interval. Though it was a British colony, the settlers

were nearly all Dutch, until, in 1820, our government helped a large number of British settlers to go out there, most of whom settled at or near Port Elizabeth.

There were many troubles with the natives, especially with the agile and war-like Kaffirs. At one time it seemed as though their hosts, armed with spears, would destroy all the colonists, but at last they were beaten by our men. Later on the bounds of the colony were extended, owing to a very strange event.

One of the native tribes believed that if their people killed themselves, all their warriors of the present and the past would come back again to life. So they began to commit suicide, and it is said that 50,000 perished by their own hands. In the land thus left desolate, our government settled a large number of Europeans.

There were many troubles between our government and the Dutch settlers, who did not like having their slaves set free by order of the English law of 1834. In the following years nearly 10,000 of the Dutch farmers, called Boers, packed up their goods in wagons, and went away to the north of the Orange River, so as to be beyond English control. There they founded two independent states, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, which touch our colony, Natal.

Natal was so called by the Portuguese who



discovered it, because they sighted its coast in 1497 on Christmas Day, the *natal* day of Christ. It was not claimed by any Europeans till 1823, when a small band of Englishmen bought land from



A Boer Trek.

the Zulus and settled there. The little colony was often in danger from the attacks of the powerful and war-like Zulus, who also killed a great number of Dutchmen or Boers. Then, when these had conquered the Zulus, they attacked the English settlers, but were at last driven back, and Natal became an English colony in 1843.

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## 2. THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH AFRICA.

None of our colonies has been more troubled by its neighbours than Natal. In 1878 there was war with the powerful Zulu king, Cetewayo, and our men were two or three times defeated by his hosts of black warriors, until at last the British troops succeeded in breaking the power of the king and taking him prisoner.

Then there was an even more unfortunate war with the Boers in the Transvaal. To save these people from the Zulus we had made the Transvaal part of our Empire; but many of the Boers were angry at losing their independence, and rebelled. The British government thought it right at that time to restore their independence to them, and this led to great trouble in later years.

Through the shrewdness of Mr. Cecil Rhodes, an association was formed, which in 1889 became the British South African Company. It held vast and promising lands between the rivers Limpopo and Zambesi, and even far beyond the latter stream to the head-waters of the Congo. This rich district is called Rhodesia, from the name of its founder, a great man who dreamed of a British Empire in Africa, with a railway stretching from the Cape to Cairo. He died in March, 1902, when almost in sight of his goal, and was buried simply in a wild spot among the hills in the country he had made his own.

The discovery of gold and other valuable minerals in the Transvaal led to a great rush of people from other parts, most of them being British subjects. Mines were sold and let to the new-comers, who built a large town called Johannesburg. Before long the British subjects in the Transvaal were more numerous than the Boers. They had to pay very heavy taxes to the Boer government, without receiving in return the fair treatment which the Boer president had promised to them. Even their children were not allowed to learn English in the schools.

Such a state of things was very galling to free-born Britons, and many attempts were made to get better treatment. But the Boers were unwilling to allow the Outlanders, as the foreigners were called, to enjoy any real political liberty. After years of quarrelling and discussion, the Outlanders at last appealed to Queen Victoria's government to help them. Lord Milner, the British High Commissioner in South Africa, had an interview with President Kruger, and his friend Mr. Steyn, the president of the Orange Free State, and tried to obtain a promise of fair treatment for British subjects. But the meeting was a failure.

At length the British government insisted on something being done. The answer was a declaration of war. In October, 1899, before we could send a sufficient army to South Africa, the

Boers of the Transvaal, aided by the Boers of the Orange Free State, invaded Natal and Cape Colony. At first we suffered reverses. Our troops were besieged in Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking, but they held out bravely, in spite of illness and want of good food. Several of our generals were beaten in trying to relieve them. But they were at last relieved, and Lord Roberts captured Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, and Pretoria, the chief towns of the Boer states, and proclaimed these states to be part of the British Empire.

By this time we had an army of 250,000 men engaged in South Africa, made up of men from all parts of the Empire. Australia in the far east, Canada in the far west, sent brave young men to help the Mother Country. No such army had ever been seen in the world before.

Even after their chief places were in the hands of the British, the Boers bravely kept up the struggle, not fighting pitched battles, but falling on convoys and bodies of troops on the march. After the war had gone on for nearly three years, causing the loss of thousands of lives, and the wasting of millions of pounds, in April, 1902, the Boer leaders met Lord Kitchener, the British commander-in-chief, and discussed terms of peace. Repeated meetings ended in a general surrender of the Boers on May 31.

We have now learned about the men who, both in peace and war, have helped to make our country great and prosperous; and, among all the stories of the British nation, none is more wonderful than that of its spread over vast continents far removed from our small islands. If Marlborough at the end of his great victories had been told that his countrymen would soon found a vast empire over the seas, he would have thought it impossible. Yet it has been done; and nearly all of our empire has been won since 1757, when Clive conquered Bengal at Plassey. In 150 years our countrymen have won complete supremacy in India, Canada, Australasia, and South Africa; and though they lost that splendid land, the United States, yet they have made Canada a great Dominion, stretching from ocean to ocean. Well may we say, in the words of one of our poets, in speaking of our empire across the seas:—

“Regions Cæsar never knew  
Thy posterity shall sway,  
Where his eagles never flew,  
None invincible as they”.

## SUMMARY.

**William of Orange.**—(1) On the 5th of November, 1688, amid the cheers of the people, an army was landed at Torbay, having at its head a tall, thin, pale-faced, quiet, dignified man, William, Prince of Orange. Alarmed by the attempts of James to introduce the Roman Catholic form of worship into England, and by his disregard for law, the Protestants of England had invited William of Orange to come to their aid. As William advanced towards London, James's officers and courtiers, and, at last, his daughter Anne and her husband, joined him; and James, finding that he could rely on no support save that of the soldiers he had brought over from Ireland, sent his wife and child to the Continent, and soon after followed himself.

The throne was declared vacant; and William and Mary, having accepted the conditions laid down in the "Bill of Rights", became **King and Queen**, 1689.

(2) William's coldness and stiffness of manner prevented him from becoming such a favourite with the people as the queen did. One of his first acts was to secure freedom of worship to nonconformists. The supporters of James, called Jacobites, were a numerous body, particularly in the Highlands of Scotland. Their leader **Viscount Dundee** inflicted a sharp defeat on **General Mackay**, at the battle of **Killiecrankie**, 1689. Dundee fell in the moment of victory, and with him the hopes of Jacobite successes in Scotland.

An attempt to win over the Chiefs to submit to William was, contrary to the wishes of the Secretary for Scotland, Sir J. Dalrymple, very successful. By the time appointed, January 1st, 1692, all the chiefs had taken the oath accepting William for king save **Macdonald of Glencoe**, who had been prevented by several unlucky circumstances from doing so. A shameful massacre of the unfortunate clan followed, for which William cannot be held blameless.

(3) In Ireland the Roman Catholics sided with James, who landed at **Kinsale**, and, at the head of a large army, besieged the Protestants in **Londonderry** and **Enniskillen**. After a heroic defence,

in which a clergyman named Walker took the foremost part, Londonderry was relieved, and the besieging army retired.

On the same day the Protestants of Enniskillen defeated the force besieging them at Newtown-Butler.

William landed in Ireland in 1690, and forced the passage of the Boyne in the face of a strong opposing army, commanded by James, who, when defeated, fled first to Dublin, and afterwards to France. The defeat of the French and Irish at Aughrim, and the surrender of Limerick, 1691, brought the war in Ireland to an end.

(4) The war with France was continued. The complete defeat of the French fleet at La Hogue, 1692, relieved the country of the fear of a French invasion under which it had lain since Torrington's defeat at Beachy Head, 1690, and the queen gave up her royal palace of Greenwich as a hospital for the wounded and disabled seamen.

Though beaten on land at Steinkirk, 1692, and at Landen, 1693, the real advantages in the struggle came to William, who, in 1695, captured Namur.

He saved the Netherlands from being conquered by the French, and Louis made peace at Ryswick, 1697.

(5) The queen died from small-pox in December, 1694. There was much discontent with William's government, and various Jacobite plots were formed to murder the king, for one of which Sir John Fenwick was beheaded, 1697. The Act of Settlement was passed in 1701, on the death of the Duke of Gloucester, son of Princess Anne. When Louis acknowledged the "Old Pretender", as King of Great Britain, &c., on the death of his father, James II., there was an outburst of national anger which enabled William to form the Grand Alliance against France.

William died from the result of an accident in 1702. Left an orphan at an early age, and a prisoner in the power of his enemies, he freed his native land from the French; became the champion of the Protestants of Europe; delivered England from tyranny; and checked the ambitious designs of the French king.

The Mutiny Act, 1689, made the discipline of the army depend on the annual passing of the Act. The establishment of the Bank of England, 1694, and Bank of Scotland, 1695, tended to promote commerce; while the Scottish people greatly blamed the king and government for the failure of the Darien Scheme. Queen Anne, who succeeded in 1702, adhered to the policy of the Grand Alliance; declared war against France and Spain; and appointed Marlborough to the command of the English army in the Netherlands.

**Marlborough.**—(1) John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, born at Ashe, Devonshire, in 1650, was one of the greatest

generals of all time. Tall and handsome, with graceful, dignified, and attractive manners, he was ambitious, selfish, greedy, and treacherous. Even in his youth he showed himself a brave and skilful officer; and on the death of William, his genius was shown in his success in maintaining the **Grand Alliance**, and in the victories whereby he overthrew the greatly-increased forces of France, and restored the balance of power.

(2) He showed great patience and tact in keeping the different members of the alliance on good terms. In his first two campaigns he secured Holland against the attack of the French and Spaniards. Then, having gained the sanction of the Dutch, he marched southwards to help the Emperor against the French and Bavarians. Concealing his plans he marched up the Rhine; forced the Bavarian lines at Schellenberg, on the Danube: captured Donauwerth; and almost completely destroyed the French and Bavarian armies at the battle of **Blenheim**, 1704.

This great battle took place less than a month after the capture of Gibraltar by Sir George Rooke.

(3) These victories were followed, in 1706, by Marlborough's crushing defeat of Villeroy at **Ramillies**. In 1708 he gained another great victory at **Oudenarde**; and, having driven the French out of the Netherlands, captured **Lisle**, 1708, and won the battle of **Malplaquet**, 1710, he was preparing to invade France.

(4) Then, as a result of Tory plots, accused of having taken public money for his own use, he was dismissed from all his offices. By the peace of **Utrecht** England secured considerable advantages; and, when George I. became king, Marlborough, who had taken refuge on the Continent, was recalled, and restored to his offices. The great rewards showered on him were well merited, for his genius undoubtedly saved the liberties of Europe.

In 1707 the parliaments of England and Scotland were united. By the prosecution of Dr. Sacheverell (1710) the Whig ministry lost popularity, and the queen replaced it by a Tory ministry, the members of which not only plotted on behalf of the Pretender, but devised the persecuting **Schism Act**, 1714.

**The Revolt of 1715.**—On the death of Anne George I. became king.

The Tories were dismissed, their leaders prosecuted, and the **Riot Act** passed, 1715.

In Scotland, where the **Act of Union** had caused dissatisfaction, **John, Earl of Mar**, raised a force of 12,000 men on behalf of the Pretender. Throwing 2000 men, under **General Mackintosh**,



across the Forth to join the rebels in the north of England, Mar made himself master of Perth, and advanced towards Stirling. At Sheriffmuir a drawn battle between him and Argyle, the royal commander in Scotland, was followed by Mar's withdrawal to Perth. On the same day the rebels in the north of England, and their Scottish allies, surrendered at Preston. Mar was joined by the Pretender at Perth; but, seeing no chance of success, on Argyle's approach they fled to France. Very few of the ringleaders were put to death for their share in this rebellion.

Warned by informers, the government had taken the precaution, both in England and Scotland, to imprison many of those known to favour the Jacobite cause. The Septennial Act, prolonging the duration of parliament, was passed in 1716. In a war with Spain Admiral Byng destroyed a Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro, in Sicily (1718), and General Wightman forced a body of about 300 Spaniards to surrender at Glenshiel, 1719.

**Sir Robert Walpole.**—(1) The country prospered, commerce was extended, and many were seized with a mania for speculation.

The South Sea Company, in return for the sole right of trading with the Southern Seas, had brought forward a scheme for paying the National Debt. Walpole spoke against the scheme; but people generally were caught by it. The Company's shares rose to ten times what had been given for them at first, and then went down as rapidly in value. Thousands were ruined. A clamour arose against the government, some of the members of which had favoured the Company's scheme. Walpole came forward with a plan for restoring confidence and lessening the evil results of the South Sea Failure. He became the chief minister of the crown; and supported by the king, the nonconformists, and the commercial classes, was able to carry out his policy of maintaining peace, and extending the commerce of England.

(2) Under him the powers of the parliament, and of the ministry, especially of the Prime Minister, were greatly increased; while the exercise of the veto, and certain other royal powers, fell into disuse. Though he kept his place by bribery, under his guidance the country prospered. He failed in his efforts to stop smuggling by an Excise Bill; but his commercial changes were mostly beneficial. A combined attack of his enemies forced him to resign in 1742, and he died three years afterwards.

In the War of the Austrian Succession, Great Britain sided with Maria Theresa, and George II. defeated the Duke de Noailles at Dettingen, 1743. Commodore Anson returned from a voyage round the world, in 1744, bringing with him treasure valued at 1½ millions; and, in 1745, the Duke of Cumberland was defeated by Marshal Saxe at Fontenoy.

**Bonnie Prince Charlie.**—(1) This gallant young prince, after narrowly escaping capture, landed near Moidart, in Inverness, 1745, with a very small number of followers. He was joined by Cameron of Lochiel and other Highland chieftains. The withdrawal of Sir J. Cope, the royalist general, to Inverness, encouraged him to march by Perth to Edinburgh, where he caused his father to be proclaimed king. He defeated Sir John Cope, who was advancing against him, at Prestonpans; and after a delay of six weeks, he marched into England. After a three days' siege he captured Carlisle, and continued his march, by Preston and Manchester, where he was joined by about 200 supporters, to Derby.

(2) From Derby he was compelled by the Council of Chiefs to retreat.

The retreat to Scotland was skilfully managed, the royal troops under Wade being sharply repulsed at Clifton.

The Highland army took up their quarters in Glasgow on Christmas Day, 1745. Advancing from Glasgow, the Pretender defeated General Hawley at Falkirk, early in 1746; but his army, weakened by quarrels and desertions, was completely defeated by the Duke of Cumberland at Culloden Moor. Though a price of £30,000 was put on the Pretender's head, he succeeded, with the aid of the heroic Flora Macdonald, in reaching France after many hairbreadth escapes. The clansmen were disarmed; the use of the kilt was forbidden; the power of the chiefs was abolished; and a number of Highland regiments were formed. By these means peace and order were restored.

**Two Great Preachers.**—Religion in England during the first quarter of the eighteenth century was at a low ebb. The mass of the people, rich and poor, were drunken; fond of brutal or childish pastimes; coarse and vulgar in their manners; and utterly irreverent. The clergy were little better than the laity.

About 1730 John Wesley began a religious revival at Oxford. On account of the strictness and regularity of their lives, Wesley and his followers were spoken of sneeringly as Methodists. In 1735 he went out as a missionary to America, where he met with but slight success.

On his return to England in 1738 the Wesleyan movement was fairly set agoing. George Whitfield and Wesley's brother Charles were among his most earnest supporters. Meeting with opposition from the Established clergy, they separated from the Church of England and erected chapels of their own. But it was by their

open-air preaching, for which Whitfield was specially famous, by the beauty and unselfishness of their characters and their lives, as well as by their unceasing labours, that Wesley and his supporters succeeded in bringing the great body of the people to a better religious condition.

**The Story of Josiah Wedgwood.**—Wedgwood was the youngest son of a poor potter at Burslem. He had but slight schooling, and though he was too weak, from the result of an attack of small-pox, to carry on the harder parts of a potter's work, he entirely changed the pottery trade in England. After failing to establish a business at Stoke, he settled in Burslem, his native town, in 1759; and by care and attention succeeded in a short time in producing the beautiful cream-coloured ware called "Queen's Ware". He set himself to improve the material, the workmanship, and the design of English pottery—employing among other artists the famous sculptor Flaxman. In 1771 he removed his works to Etruria, and died in 1795, having gained a large fortune, which he spent with a wise and noble liberality.

Peace was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. But the interests of the French, who claimed the valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi and wished to leave the British colonists in America only the strip of land on the western shore of the Atlantic, and who aimed also at supremacy in India, were so opposed to those of Great Britain that war broke out between the two countries in 1755. The heroes of this war were Clive, Wolfe, and Pitt, "the great commoner".

**The Story of Clive.**—(1) Born near Market Drayton in 1725, Clive in his youth was not fond of nor quick at learning, while at a very early age he gave evidence of a daring and masterful disposition. Sent to India as a writer in the service of the East India Company, he was at first so miserable that he tried to commit suicide. When the French, under Dupleix, captured Madras, in 1746, Clive escaped to Fort St. David, which he helped to defend. He became a soldier; and by his capture and heroic defence of Arcot, in 1751, spread his own fame and the fame of English valour throughout India.

(2) Having married, visited England, and made his relatives sharers in his wealth, Clive returned to India in 1755. He hastened from Madras in 1756, retook Calcutta, and forced Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, who had captured it, to agree to peace and to promise to pay the Company for the mischief he had done. At the beginning of the Seven Years' War Clive seized the French settlement of Chandernagore, and at Plassey, with 3000 men,

utterly defeated 60,000, under the Nabob of Bengal, who had taken the side of the French. Clive then placed **Meer Jaffer** on the throne of Bengal, and he himself managed the Company's affairs till 1760, when he returned to England, having amassed a huge fortune. He entered parliament, was made **Baron Clive of Plassey** in 1762, and in 1765 returned to India, where he did good service in reforming the Company's system of managing affairs in India.

Clive committed suicide in 1774.

The complaints of the British ambassador at Paris of the attacks of the French and their Indian allies on the British colonies in America having produced no effect, war broke out in 1755. General Braddock was surprised and defeated near Fort Duquesne, 1755; and Montcalm captured Fort Ontario in 1756, and Fort William Henry, 1757.

**The Story of General Wolfe.**—In 1759 Pitt planned an expedition for the conquest of Canada, and gave the command of the portion of it that was to try to take Quebec to **General Wolfe**, a young officer who had gained great fame at the capture of Louisburg, 1758. Unable to break through the defences of the wary Montcalm, Wolfe, with matchless daring, scaled the cliffs above the city, at a point where they were insufficiently guarded, seized the Plains of Abraham, and forced his opponents to fight a battle. Wolfe fell in the hour of victory, Montcalm was killed, Quebec surrendered, and Canada became a British possession.

**William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.**—Born in Cornwall, in 1708, Pitt studied at Oxford, became a cornet of dragoons, and afterwards entered parliament, 1735. His eloquent attacks helped greatly to bring about the overthrow of Walpole; and the Duchess of Marlborough, who hated that great minister, left £10,000 to Pitt as a reward.

In 1746 Pitt was made **Paymaster-general**, but was deprived of that office for his attack on the Newcastle government, 1755.

When the **Seven Years' War** broke out, matters at first went badly for England. Minorca was captured by the French, and the English admiral, Byng, condemned by a court-martial for not having done his utmost against the enemy, was shot, while the Duke of Cumberland was forced to conclude the disgraceful treaty of Closter Seven. George II., though he disliked Pitt, was forced to accept him as a Minister in 1756.

**The Earl of Chatham** (*continued*).—Pitt inspired the people with his own confidence; quieted the Highlands by forming

the Highland regiments; carried on the war vigorously; aided Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, and made the years 1757 to 1761 among the most brilliant in English history. George III., like his grandfather George II., hated Pitt, who not receiving the support of the ministry for a war with Spain, resigned in 1761. He was Prime Minister in 1766, but resigned in 1768 on account of ill-health. He did his utmost to prevent the war with the American colonies, and his last speech in the House of Lords, in 1778, was in support of peace with them.

**The Story of Warren Hastings.**—Born at Daylesford, in Worcestershire, 1732, Hastings was among the clerks of the Company who fled down the river when Surajah Dowlah seized Calcutta. He served Clive first as a volunteer, and afterwards as agent first at the court of Surajah Dowlah and then at the court of Meer Jaffer.

He became a member of the Council of Calcutta, in 1761, just after the victory of Colonel Coote at Wandewash, 1760, and the surrender of Pondicherry, 1761, had put an end to the French hopes of an Indian empire. He returned to England in 1764. Between Clive's leaving India, in 1767, and the Governorship of Hastings, 1772, little of importance took place save the terrible Bengal famine of 1770, which carried off one-third of the people. Hastings altered and improved the mode of managing affairs in India, created courts of justice, and established a police; and his reforms were not more successful than the bold foreign policy which he adopted.

**Warren Hastings** (*continued*).—In a war with the Mah-rattas (1778–1782) Captain Popham carried by storm the fortress of Gwalior; but all the energies of Hastings were needed to repel an attack on Madras by Hyder Ali of Mysore, who at the head of 90,000 men cut to pieces a strong body of troops (under Colonel Baillie), and conquered the Carnatic, 1780. Then the energy of Hastings saved the honour of the English name. Troops were sent to the Carnatic under Sir Eyre Coote, and supported by Hastings with all the men and money he could collect, were able to defeat Hyder Ali and his French allies, in 1781, and again in 1782.

The Rajah of Benares (Chait Singh) refused to pay the tax asked by the governor for this war, and rebelled. Hastings crushed the rebellion and declared his estates forfeited. He also made the princesses of Oude pay a heavy fine for aiding the rajah. On his return to England, in 1785, he was brought to trial for extortion. After a trial lasting for seven years he was acquitted. He died in 1818.

**Cook's Voyages.**—(1) James Cook, the son of a Yorkshire farm

labourer, was born at **Morton**, near **Whitby**, in 1728. Having risen to be mate of a collier, he entered the navy as able seaman in 1755. As master in the **Mercury**, 1759, he was engaged in surveying the channel of the **St. Lawrence**, and he afterwards surveyed the coasts of **Newfoundland** and **Labrador**. As lieutenant in command of the **Endeavour** he carried a party of scientists to **Tahiti** to observe the transit of **Venus**, in 1768. During this voyage, which lasted till 1771, Cook explored **New Zealand** and the **East Coast of Australia**.

(2) He was made commander in 1771, and in his second voyage of discovery, 1772-1775, he attempted to find out the reported great Southern Continent, and discovered the island of **New Caledonia**. He became captain in 1775; and in 1776, in command of the **Resolution** and the **Discovery**, he set out on his third voyage, the object of which was to find a way from the Pacific to the Atlantic, round the north of America. The **Sandwich Islands** were discovered in 1777, and there, shortly after his return to them, in 1779, Cook was murdered in a quarrel with the natives.

The outcry against the **Treaty of Paris**, 1763, and against his management of affairs, forced the **Earl of Bute**, **George III.**'s first prime minister, to resign. He was succeeded by **George Grenville**, who attacked the freedom of the press and the liberty of the individual in the case of **John Wilkes**, and passed the famous **Stamp Act**, which caused so much ill-feeling in America. While **Lord Rockingham** was Prime Minister the **Stamp Act** was repealed and the unlawfulness of general warrants acknowledged. After the **Earl of Chatham (Pitt)** had been Prime Minister, 1766-1768, and the **Duke of Grafton**, 1768-1770, who was driven from power by the attack made on him in the famous letters known as "**the Letters of Junius**", **Lord North** became Prime Minister in 1770; and to his unwise attempt to assert the right of the British House of Commons to tax the colonists the American War was due.

**The American War of Independence.**—(1) The thirteen American colonies protested against being taxed by a body in which they were not represented, complained of other interferences with their commerce and liberty; and when ships with the taxed tea reached **Boston Harbour**, they were boarded by some disguised colonists and the tea thrown into the water.

As a punishment the port of Boston was closed, and the charter, or grant giving them the right of self-government, taken from **Massachusetts** by the English parliament. A congress of the colonies at **Philadelphia** resolved to cease trading with Great Britain till the rights of **Massachusetts** were restored.

In 1775 a body of soldiers, sent to destroy some arms collected by the colonists at **Lexington**, were attacked, and a large number of the men were killed; and in an attempt to drive the colonial militia from their position on **Bunker's Hill**, our men, though successful, lost very heavily.

(2) The colonists made **George Washington**, who had gained fame for himself in the old **French-Indian wars**, commander-in-chief; and the united Congress, on July 4, 1776 passed the **Declaration of Independence**. The English repelled an American invasion of Canada in 1776, and though Washington forced the English to quit Boston he was defeated in 1777 at the battles of **Brandywine** and **Germantown**, near Philadelphia; but the surrender of **General Burgoyne** at **Saratoga** was the turning-point of the war.

France joined with the United States in 1778, and Spain declared war on Britain in 1779, and besieged **Gibraltar**, which the Spaniards and French, after a three years' siege, failed to take. In 1780 Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, and soon afterwards Holland, formed the **Armed Neutrality** against Britain.

The war in America went on, with success sometimes on one side, sometimes on the other, till 1781, when **Lord Cornwallis** and 5000 men were compelled to surrender to Washington at **Yorktown**. The raising the siege of **Gibraltar** and **Rodney's** great victory over the **Count de Grasse** in the **West Indies** made Britain's enemies lower their demands, though by the **Peace of Versailles**, 1783, Britain acknowledged the independence of the **United States** and gave up **Minorca** to Spain.

**William Pitt, the Younger.**—(1) William Pitt, second son of the Earl of Chatham, was born at **Hayes**, near **Bromley**, Kent, in 1759, and educated at Cambridge. He entered parliament in 1780, and in 1782 became Chancellor of the Exchequer. When the king dismissed the **Coalition Ministry** in 1783 Pitt became Prime Minister; and the general election in 1784 gave him a large majority. By abolishing laws that interfered with trade, and by wise changes in the taxes, he promoted the commerce of the country.

He passed his **India Bill**; but failed to carry a measure of parliamentary reform. He also tried to pacify Ireland, which, taking advantage of the difficulties brought upon Britain by the American War, had claimed perfect independence for its parliament.

The progress of reform and the growing national prosperity were interrupted by the **French Revolution**, which, though at first favourably regarded by Pitt, led to a war between this country and France. Pitt was not, like his father, a great war minister, and for a considerable time England, save at sea, met with nothing but defeat. At home, agitators and reformers were severely punished.

(2) The victories of the French in Italy under **Napoleon Bonaparte**, and elsewhere, left England without allies; but, though our sailors

mutinied on account of being badly treated, in 1797 (under Duncan), they defeated the Dutch (off Camperdown), and (under Sir J. Jervis) they defeated the Spaniards (off Cape St. Vincent) in the same year. A rebellion in Ireland, which was brought to an end at the battle of Vinegar Hill in 1798, led to the Union of the parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland in 1801. When George III. refused to grant civil freedom to the Catholics in Ireland Pitt resigned, 1801. After the Peace of Amiens, 1802, war having broken out with France, he became again Prime Minister in 1804, and prepared his scheme of national defence. Napoleon, unable to invade Britain, turned against our Austrian allies, whom he defeated in the great battle of Austerlitz. The news of this defeat hastened Pitt's death in 1806.

**The Story of Lord Nelson.**—(1) Horatio Nelson, born at Burnham Thorpe, in Norfolk, in 1758, entered the navy in 1770, and by his zeal and devotion to his duty, as well as by the influence of his mother's family, rose so rapidly that he was captain of the *Hinchinbrook* frigate in 1779. War with France having broken out in 1793, Nelson was made captain of the *Agamemnon*, and served with Lord Hood in the Mediterranean. At the siege of Calvi in Corsica he lost the sight of one eye. The decisive victory of St. Vincent, 1797, was largely due to Commodore Nelson. As rear-admiral, in 1798, Nelson pursued Bonaparte to Egypt, and almost completely destroyed a larger French fleet at the battle of the Nile (1798).

By this victory England gained command of the Mediterranean, and Napoleon, having tried in vain the capture of Acre, returned to France, leaving the French army in Egypt. It was defeated in 1801 by Sir R. Abercromby at Aboukir, and compelled to surrender.

(2) By his victory at Copenhagen, 1801, Nelson broke up the league formed by the Baltic Powers against Britain; and, when war broke out with France in 1803, he took command of the fleet which blockaded Toulon. He chased the French fleet across the Atlantic and back to Europe; shut it up in Cadiz harbour; and finally almost completely destroyed the united fleets of France and Spain at the battle of Trafalgar (1805), in which he was mortally wounded.

**The Story of Wellington.**—(1) Arthur Wellesley, born in Ireland, 1769, and educated at Eton, became lieutenant-colonel of the 33rd Foot in 1793. He commanded his regiment in the war against Tippoo, Sultan of Mysore; took part in the capture of Seringapatam, in 1799; and was left to settle the affairs of the conquered province. He became major-general in 1802, and commanded against



the Mahrattas, whom he defeated at Assaye and afterwards at **Argaum**, completely breaking their power. For this service he received the thanks of parliament.

Napoleon having defeated the Prussians at **Jena**, 1806, attempted by his Berlin and Milan decrees to ruin English commerce. His scheme for an invasion of England, with the help of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, was rendered useless by the prompt bombardment of **Copenhagen** and seizure of the Danish fleet by the British in 1807.

(2) Napoleon then turned his attention to Spain, dethroned the Spanish ruler, and made his own brother **Joseph** king. The Spaniards asked help, and Wellesley, at the head of a small force, was sent to Portugal.

He defeated the French under Junot at **Roliça** and **Vimiera**, and forced them to leave Portugal (1808). **Sir John Moore**, who succeeded to the command, having fallen at **Coruña** (1809), after a skilful retreat, it was resolved by the British government to send Wellesley again to the Peninsula.

He defeated **Soult** at the **Douro**; drove the French out of Portugal; and repulsed, after two days' fighting, a much larger French army at **Talavera**. For this victory he was made Viscount Well-

(3) Compelled to retreat, on account of the greater numbers of the French, **Wellington** inflicted a severe check on the enemy at **Busaco**, and then retired behind the famous **Lines of Torres Vedras**.

The French having been forced to retreat, **Wellington** pursued and defeated **Mas-sena** at **Fuentes d'Onoro** (1811); while **Beresford**, the same year, defeated **Soult** at **Albuera**, and **Graham** defeated **Victor** at **Barossa**.

In 1812 **Wellington** captured **Ciudad Rodrigo** and **Badajoz**, won the great battle of **Salamanca** (against **Marmont**), and entered **Madrid**. Forced again to retire on Portugal, next year the English general entered Spain, defeated the French (under **King Joseph** and **Jourdan**) at **Vittoria** (captured **San Sebastian**), and drove them through the Pyrenees into France, which he invaded.

(4) In 1814, he defeated **Soult** at **Orthes**, and again at **Toulouse**. Meantime, Napoleon, pursued by the allied armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, after his retreat from Moscow, was forced to resign, and was sent to the island of **Elba**. In 1815, while a Congress was sitting at **Vienna** to settle the affairs of Europe, Napoleon landed in France. His old soldiers joined him. **Louis XVIII.**, who had been made King of France, fled, and Napoleon was again master of the country. On June 16th he defeated the Prussians at **Ligny**; but **Ney** was repulsed by **Wellington** at **Quatre Bras**; and

on Sunday, 18th June, Napoleon himself was defeated by Wellington at Waterloo, the Prussians under Blücher arriving in time to take part in the pursuit.

Wellington commanded the army of occupation in France, and on his return to England he served his country no less faithfully, if less brilliantly, in parliament than he had previously done in the field. Acknowledged to be a man of the strictest uprightness and devotion to duty, and respected by the people of Great Britain and Ireland, he died in 1852.

**Hargreaves and the Spinning Jenny.**—Formerly spinning and weaving were household tasks, the spinning being usually done by the women and the weaving by the men of the family. Spinning with the old-fashioned spinning-wheel was a very slow process, and men tried to invent machines by which thread could be made more quickly. In 1767, James Hargreaves, a weaver (and carpenter of Standhill, near Blackburn), invented the spinning jenny. Some years before he had helped Robert Peel to make a carding machine. Now his neighbours heard of the spinning-frame and broke into his house and destroyed it; whereupon Hargreaves went away to Nottingham, and built a spinning-mill. Hargreaves died a poor man in 1778.

He took out a patent for his invention; but, as he had sold some machines before doing so, it was declared that his rights could not be protected by it.

**The Story of Arkwright and Crompton.**—Richard Arkwright, the youngest of a humble family of thirteen, was born at Preston in 1732. He settled at Bolton about 1750 as a barber, and afterwards became a hair dealer. Having invented a machine for spinning cotton, the celebrated spinning-frame, he went to Nottingham, where he built a mill, and took out a patent for his invention (1769). The first mill was driven by horses; but afterwards Arkwright used water-power, and at a later time steam. In 1792 he died worth about half a million.

Samuel Crompton, the son of a small farmer, near Bolton, in Lancashire, was able, in 1779, to make a spinning-machine which made finer and better thread than the machines of Hargreaves and Arkwright. The invention, which had cost Crompton years of toil, added greatly to the wealth of the country generally, and to that of Lancashire in particular, which became the chief seat of the cotton manufactures.

**Cartwright and the Power-loom.**—Edmund Cartwright, an ingenious clergyman of Leicestershire (who was born at Marnham, Nottinghamshire, in 1743), having thought a great deal

about how to improve the methods of weaving, produced in 1785 his power-loom. It was not, however, till the beginning of the nineteenth century that the power-loom began to come into common use. The use of steam-power to drive these machines led more and more to manufactures being set up where coal was cheap. Cartwright took out patents for various other improvements connected with manufactures; and for the benefits derived from his invention government made him a grant of £10,000. He died at Hastings, 1823.

**James Watt and the Steam-engine.**—James Watt, born at Greenock in 1736, though delicate in his youth, showed at an early age a turn for mathematics and a great interest in machines. In Glasgow, and afterwards in London, he learned the trade of a mathematical-instrument maker, and in 1757 became instrument-maker to Glasgow University. When repairing a working model of the Newcomen engine, used in the natural philosophy class, Watt observed its defects, and set himself to remedy them. The result was the invention of a separate condenser, and a number of other improvements and inventions which brought steam into common use, and placed Watt at the head of all inventors. Watt died in 1819.

He entered into partnership with Matthew Boulton, of Birmingham, and his engines were produced at the famous Soho works, near Birmingham.

**George Stephenson.**—George Stephenson was born at Wylam, near Newcastle, in 1781. His father was a fireman with 12s. a week, and George had to begin to earn his living when very young. At fifteen he became a fireman, and made himself thoroughly acquainted with his engine in his spare time: taking it to pieces, cleaning it, and putting it together again. His evenings he spent in learning reading, writing, and arithmetic. He married in 1802, and his son, Robert, was born in 1803. In 1812 he became engine-wright at Killingworth Colliery. While here he made his first locomotive, and invented a safety-lamp, the Geordie, for which he received a public testimonial of £1000.

He improved his locomotive, and in 1821 was made engineer for the construction of the Stockton and Darlington Railway, which proved a success. After overcoming very great difficulties, he finished the line between Liverpool and Manchester in 1829; and on the opening day an engine built by him, the Rocket, was found able to travel at the then almost undreamt of rate of 35 miles an

hour. In company with his son Robert he had a share in making many other important railways.

Peace was made with the United States at Ghent in 1814. The years which followed Waterloo were miserable years for the working-classes in Great Britain and Ireland. Numbers of the people were on the verge of starvation. There was general dissatisfaction, and a general agitation for economy and reform. The government met the agitation by punishing the leaders.

In 1820 George III. died, and George IV., who had been Regent from 1811, became king. The execution of the *Cato Street* conspirators, and the trial of Queen Caroline (1820); the famine in Ireland (1822); the *Burmese War* (1823-25); the battle of Navarino (1827), which secured the independence of Greece; and the adoption of sliding-scale duties on corn (1828) are important events; but the most memorable events of the reign were the passing of the Catholic Relief Act in 1829, and the reform of the Criminal law (1823-30).

**The Great Reform Bill.**—(1) William IV. became king in 1830, and Lord John Russell, a member of Earl Grey's cabinet, introduced his Reform Bill. The bill proposed to take the right of electing members to parliament from small or decayed places, and to confer it on the large manufacturing towns which had sprung up with the progress of inventions.

(2) Though a very moderate and necessary measure of reform, it was looked upon by some as going too far. When the bill was thrown out by the House of Commons, parliament was dissolved. The bill was passed by the House of Commons in 1831, by a very large majority, but was thrown out by the House of Lords. This led to riots at Bristol, Derby, Nottingham, and elsewhere.

The king, finding no one else willing to undertake the task of governing the country, was forced to agree to the demand of Brougham and Grey. He granted them power to create, if necessary, a sufficient number of peers to overcome the hostile majority.

In 1832 the bill was passed. It made the House of Commons more truly represent the opinion of the country, and it improved the mode of holding elections. Other Reform Bills were passed in 1867 and 1884.

The reformed parliament passed an act for the Abolition of Slavery in the British dominions in 1834; regulated, by the Factory Act of 1833, the hours of labour of women and children in mines and factories, reformed the Poor Laws; passed the Municipal Reform Act in 1835; and began the system of Annual Grants in aid of Education in 1834.

Queen Victoria, who began to reign in 1837, was married to Prince Albert in 1840. The labours of Cobden and Bright, and other leaders of the Anti-Corn Law League, and the famine in Ireland, caused by the potato disease (1845), led to the Repeal of the Corn-laws in 1846, by Sir Robert Peel; and to the general adoption of the principles of free trade by Great Britain. After 1848 the Chartist agitation, begun about 1838, gradually died out, as did also the Irish Repeal agitation, begun by Daniel O'Connell in 1829, and carried on vigorously by him till his trial in 1844. In 1851 the first Great International Exhibition was opened in London.

**John Howard.**—John Howard was born about 1726, and on his father's death, in 1742, came into a large fortune. In 1756, the year after his first wife's death, when on his way to Lisbon to aid the poor people who had suffered by a great earthquake, Howard was captured by a French privateer and thrown into prison. His sufferings there seem to have made a deep impression on him, for, when made high sheriff of Bedfordshire in 1773, he at once began his labours as a prison reformer. Owing to his efforts the parliament of 1774 passed two bills, one for doing away with jailers' fees, and the other for making the prisons more healthy. He visited the chief prisons in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and on the Continent, and in 1777 published his book on the subject, *State of the Prisons, &c.*

The book was eagerly read, and led to many important reforms in the management of prisons, and even in the laws themselves. Howard's labours, in the course of which he travelled upwards of 50,000 miles, were directed also to the improvement of the condition of hospitals, schools, and workhouses. He died at Kherson, in Southern Russia, in 1790, of typhus fever, caught while attending a young lady who had taken it.

**William Wilberforce.**—William Wilberforce was born at Hull in 1759, and educated at Cambridge. He entered parliament in 1780 as member for his native town. The intimate and faithful friend of Pitt, he refused to take a place in the government; and from 1788 gave all his thought and care to bringing about the abolition of the slave-trade. Though helped by Pitt, and by Thomas Clarkson and the Quakers, it was not till 1806 that he was able to get the law passed abolishing the trade. Wilberforce then sought to secure the abolition of slavery itself. He was forced, on account of his health, to retire from parliament in 1825, but he lived to see his countrymen spend £20,000,000 in setting free the slaves throughout the British dominions.

**Elizabeth Fry.**—Elizabeth Fry, daughter of John Gurney, a Quaker and rich banker, was born at Norwich in 1780. She worked much among the poor, and began a school for poor children. In 1800 she married Joseph Fry and went to live in London, where she continued her charitable labours. In 1813 she and her sister visited Newgate, and found the female prisoners there in a wretched state. She formed a society to help them and try to improve them; and, by pointing out to those in power how things could be made better

she caused many changes to be made in the treatment of female prisoners and convicts, which did a great deal of good. Following Howard's example she visited many of the prisons in different parts of the country and on the Continent. She died in 1845.

**The Story of David Livingstone.**—(1) David Livingstone was born in 1813 in the village of Blantyre, near Glasgow. A bright, industrious lad, he worked hard both in the factory and at his books; and having made up his mind to become a medical missionary, and prepared himself by study at Glasgow University and in London, he was ordained, and sailed for Africa in 1840. In 1844 he married the eldest daughter of Dr. Moffatt, the missionary. He won the hearts of the natives by his kindness and wisdom; and he was ably assisted by his wife.

(2) Livingstone explored vast tracts of the continent, and made many important geographical discoveries, among them the Victoria Falls on the Zambesi. Saddened by the death of his wife in 1862, and of other helpers, including Bishop Mackenzie, Livingstone returned to England in 1864. He went back to Africa in 1865, and made further explorations. Nothing being heard of him for some years, an expedition to find him was led by H. M. Stanley. Livingstone refused to return with Stanley, continued his work, and died in 1873. His body was brought home, and he was buried in Westminster Abbey in 1874.

**The Crimean War.**—(1) In 1853 the Sultan refused to sign an agreement granting to the Czar a right to interfere on behalf of the Greek Christians in Turkey. War was declared. The Russians (destroyed the Turkish fleet at Sinope, and) invaded the Principalities.

In the war on the Danube the advantage was, on the whole, with the Turks, and the Russians withdrew from the Principalities in 1854.

Meantime England and France had declared war against Russia, and a strong fleet and army were sent to the Black Sea. After a time at Varna, the army landed in the Crimea, drove the Russian army from its fortified position on the heights of Alma, and prepared to besiege Sevastopol. The Russians, coming out in force from the fortress, attacked the allies at Balaklava, but were repulsed.

(2) An even fiercer attack on the British position at Inkerman was repulsed with heavy loss. The siege proceeded slowly. Our soldiers suffered terribly from want of supplies, and from the intense cold during the winter (1854-55). Better arrangements were made;

the siege was carried on steadily, and in September, 1855, Sevastopol was captured. The new czar, **Alexander II.**, who had succeeded his father, the Czar **Nicholas**, in March, 1855, made peace with the allies at **Paris**, in March, 1856.

**India.**—The British possessions in India continued steadily to grow. **Scinde** was conquered and added to the Empire by **Sir Charles Napier**. The **Sikhs** of the north-west were defeated in several battles by **Sir H. Hardinge** and **Sir Hugh Gough**, and the **Punjaub** was added to the British dominions in 1849; and, in 1856, **Oude** became British territory.

**The Indian Mutiny.**—(1) In 1857 a portion of the Bengal native army, stationed at **Meerut**, mutinied and murdered many Europeans. Their example was followed by the Bengal native army elsewhere. One inhuman monster, **Nana Sahib**, massacred the garrison of **Cawnpore**, and the English women and children, with the utmost cruelty.

Everywhere Englishmen did their duty and fought manfully. The newly added **Punjaub** was secured by the energy of **Sir J. Lawrence** and his assistants.

An English army besieged **Delhi**. **Neill** recovered **Allahabad**. **Havelock** defeated **Nana Sahib**, captured **Benares**, and relieved the garrison in **Lucknow**.

The European forces on their way to China, with which we were then at war, were stopped by **Canning**, the governor-general.

(2) **Sir Colin Campbell**, who had been sent from home to take command of the army in India, was able, in November, finally to relieve those besieged in the **Lucknow Residency**. Two months earlier, **General Wilson** had succeeded in capturing **Delhi**. The heroic **Havelock** died shortly after the relief of the **Lucknow** garrison. The government of the queen, with **Canning** as first **Viceroy**, replaced that of the **East India Company** in 1858; and, after many battles, the mutiny was finally put down in 1859.

Much has been done since for the welfare of our Indian fellow-subjects: railways and works for supplying the land with water have rendered the once frequent famines almost impossible; a scheme of native education has been carried out; and places under government have been thrown open alike to natives and Europeans.

**Our Colonies in the West.**—(1) Yielded to Britain by the French in 1763, **Canada** kept loyal during the **Colonial War**, 1776–83. When peace was made numbers of the loyalists settled in **Upper Canada**, and in that part of **Nova Scotia** which was afterwards made into the colony of **New Brunswick**. An attack by the Americans was repelled in 1813, and a rebellion in 1841 led to the union of **Upper and Lower Canada**; while all the British colonies

in North America, save **Newfoundland**, united in 1867 and the following years to form the **Dominion of Canada**.

(2) The progress of the Dominion has been steady and satisfactory. It possesses vast natural wealth—mineral and other—which is only beginning to be turned to account. It has over 15,000 miles of railway open, and more than 30,000 miles of telegraph. Water communication is stopped for some months by the severe winters in the eastern part of the Dominion; but the winters in the west are mild. The **Canadian Pacific Railway**, between Montreal and Vancouver, provides the quickest route to Japan and China, and has opened up the fertile plains of the north-west of the Dominion. The population of Canada, which was about half-a-million in 1825 is now about five millions.

**Our Island Continent.**—(1) The coasts of New Zealand, and the eastern coast of Australia, were explored by Captain Cook, 1770-77; but it was not till 1788 that the first British settlement was made at Port Jackson. The colony, which was at first a penal settlement, had a hard struggle for life. Similar penal colonies were set up in Tasmania (1804), and Western Australia (1829); and the country was slowly explored by the efforts of Bass, Flinders, Oxley, Sturt, Eyre, &c. In 1825 Moreton Bay, now Queensland, began to be colonized; in 1835 Port Phillip, now Victoria; and in 1836 S. Australia. The discovery of gold in 1851 caused a rush of emigrants to Australia, the population of which is now over three millions. Its chief productions are wool, wheat, maize, hay, cotton, sugar, wine, &c. It is also rich in gold, silver, copper, and coal.

**New Zealand.**—A missionary settlement was made about 1814, but it was not till 1840 that New Zealand was made a colony. The settlers have often been at war with the natives (**Maoris**), who are now dying out. The chief exports from the colony are gold, wool, sheep, and agricultural products. It enjoys a delightful climate, and the soil is very fertile.

**South Africa.**—Cape Colony was first settled by the Dutch in 1651. It was taken by the British in 1795; and after being restored in 1802, was finally retaken in 1806. The colony suffered from wars with the **Kafirs**, and from troubles with the **Boers**, many of whom left the colony and formed the **Transvaal** and **Orange Free State**.



Natal was so called by **Vasco da Gama** because he discovered it on Christmas day. Settlement was begun by the **Boers** in 1837, and Natal became a British colony in 1843.

There have been three serious wars on the borders of Natal, one with the **Zulus**, and the other two with the **Boers**. The climate of S. Africa is dry and healthy, but the rainfall is uncertain, and there are often droughts. Railways have been made into the interior, and British control extended as far north as the **Zambesi**. South Africa exports wool, ostrich feathers, gold, diamonds, &c.

The great **Boer War** of 1899-1902 ended in the incorporation of the **Transvaal** and the **Orange Free State** in the British Empire, and the acceptance by the **Boers**, after a long and brave struggle, of the sovereignty of **King Edward**.

# EXPLANATIONS OF THE MORE DIFFICULT WORDS AND PHRASES.

## *The Landing of William, &c.*

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7. persecuting laws; laws punishing those holding a particular belief, or worshipping in a particular way.  
tried courage; William had proved his bravery in the field of battle  
8. exile; banishment from his native land

## *William and the Jacobites.*

8. reserved or morose behaviour, his manner of treating people, which was cold and distant and sometimes seemed even ill-humoured.  
heartless levity; utter want of right feeling, the result of a trifling nature.  
suspense and unrest; the people did not know what would be the result of what had taken place, and were greatly troubled.  
10 When they drank, &c To have actually drunk James's health as king would have made them liable to be punished for treason.  
nimble; swift of foot.  
11. the worst possible interpretation, &c. When the news was sent to the king, the very worst meaning was put on what the Macdonalds had done.

felon steel: so called because the sword was used by traitors.

meed; reward. hospitality; kindness to guests. plain; cry of grief, lament. respite; stoppage for a short time. ruthless; pitiless.

## *The War in Ireland.*

13. repaired the breaches; mended the holes in the wall.  
abandon the attempt; give up trying to take the city.

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14. undaunted; not overcome by hardship or difficulty.  
inspirit his men; keep up his men's courage.  
15. enmity; hatred.  
oppressed, put on them heavy and unjust burdens.

## *The War with France.*

15. hospital; a place of shelter for the aged or weak, or for the support and education of orphans. It does not mean here a place where the sick or wounded are treated. These places have existed from much earlier times.  
disabled; made unable to do their work by a hurt or injury.  
band; to unite together. league; union of two or more to carry out some purpose.  
equipped; supplied with what was needed in fighting.  
17 to steal a march on his foes; to gain an advantage over his enemies when they were off their guard.

## *The Close of William the Third's Reign.*

17. generally a fatal scourge; great numbers of people took the disease, and most of those who took it died.  
18. difficulties; trials in arranging for the war with France. anxiety; uneasiness of mind, care.  
19. the first place in the Dutch Republic; the place of President or Stadtholder.  
20. career; a person's course through life; what a man does or suffers.  
rose superior to; overcame.

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successively; one after the other; liberator; the man who makes a country or people free.

10. attractive, winning, charming. grace; pleasing way of acting and

maintain his dignity; made people treat him with respect, as a man of high position.

21. stooped to; lowered himself by using. to further his interests, to benefit himself.

22. finally pardoned; forgiven at last.

### *The Battle of Blenheim*

24. campaign, all that is done by an army in the field during one season or period.

28. the current too strong; the river flowed too quickly.

### *Ramillies and Malplaquet.*

28. imaginable; that one can think of. 29. tended; cared for. to regain ground; to make themselves as strong there as they were before.

rallying; getting into order to make another attack or to withstand one.

30. appealed, &c.; put the case before them and asked their help.

### *Marlborough's Downfall.*

32. retirement; private life; withdrawal from the public position he had held.

### *The Revolt of 1715.*

33. brought to bay; placed so that they were forced to fight or yield.

34. flank; the extreme right or left of an army.

insurgents; rebels.

### *Sir Robert Walpole.*

35. by leaps and bounds; very quickly (each year saw a large addition made to that of the previous year).

enterprises; undertakings, businesses. privileges; rights belonging only to a special person or class.

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36. caught the public fancy; most people thought highly of them.

best man at figures; he was cleverest at thinking out how money could be best used.

37. his face was bronzed over by a glare of confidence; he had a firm and thoroughly self-reliant look.

appeals to their reason, &c.; arguments showing that to do a certain thing was right, or was for the public welfare.

38. coinage; money, money stamped at a particular time and put into use.

### *The Origin of the "Prime Minister".*

38. detested; hated very much. presiding; being chairman. discussed; talked over.

40. poison the public mind against him, make the people think ill of him.

41. measure; proposed law; (here) excise bill.

### *Bonnie Prince Charlie.*

42. spirited; brave and proud. agast; struck with horror, made pale with astonishment at the thought of.

43. cavalier; a horseman; the name given to those who sided with his great-grandfather against the parliament.

44. an enthusiastic reception; a hearty welcome.

### *Victory and Defeat.*

45. fanatic; a madman: one under the influence of too great or unreasonable enthusiasm.

refit; supply with clothes, shoes, &c. desertion; going away without permission, forsaking.

46. No quarter, &c. They were killed. They were not taken prisoner or allowed to yield.

48. soreness; feeling of having been ill used. yearned; wished much.

romantic adventurer; one whose strong fancy leads him to undertake bold enterprise.

ha'e=have; nane=none; sairly=hard or sorely; wad=would; a=all.

*Two Great Preachers.*

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48. to awaken the religious life, &c.; to make people care for religion when they seemed no longer to heed it. absorbed; entirely taken up.
49. drank to excess; got drunk. debasing; lowering to the man who took part in them. intent; eagerly set.
51. impulsive; swayed by feelings; acting without thinking enough over the matter.

*Two Great Preachers (Contd.).*

52. the novelty of his views, &c.; the strangeness of his opinions and the earnestness of his preaching. degraded state; brutal kind of life.
53. repentance; sorrow for past wrongdoing and resolution to do better.
54. spell-bound; held as if by magic. the craze of excitement; the strong unreasoning feeling roused.
55. arousing enthusiasm; making people work for it with all their heart. exciting vehement opposition; causing some to oppose it to the utmost.

*The Story of Josiah Wedgwood.*

56. oppressed by want; having little money or food.
57. elegant patterns; graceful and beautiful models or designs.
58. Birmingham. Birmingham is situated in the valley of the Trent, on branches of its tributary the Tame, and the canal was extended to it.

*The Story of Olive.*

59. organizing genius; cleverness at arranging. laid the foundation; made the real beginning. factories. Factories were places in foreign cities where merchants and agents lived and carried on their business. These foreigners had in some cases control of the districts in which they dwelt, and these were sometimes even guarded and fortified.

62. in the disguise of, dressed to look like.

playing off the rival, &c.; making use of their quarrels so as to secure his own ends.

- aspect of affairs; state of things.
63. nerved; gave courage to. scanty band, a small troop or company. sustain life; keep them from dying of hunger. turned tail; fled. steadfast; firm, unwavering.

*The Black Hole—Plassey.*

64. vigorous hand; readiness to act quickly and firmly.

despot; tyrant.

Black Hole; the military prison of the garrison of Fort William, the fort which guarded the English factory.

65. charnel-house; properly a place near a church where the bones of the dead are put.

to compass the despot's ruin; to bring about the defeat of the tyrant.

hesitated when it came to the point; waited to see which side would win before joining it. appalled; struck with fear. destructive; that killed a great many. dense and confused masses; closely packed and disorderly crowds. torrents of fugitives; crowds of men madly striving to escape in various directions.

67. exploit; a great, noble, or uncommon deed.

Lord Clive. In 1762 Clive was made an Irish peer, with the title of Baron Clive of Plassey.

handsome; large.

*The Story of General Wolfe*

68. Canada; Quebec and Ontario. baffle French designs; upset the schemes of the French leader.

69. modesty of spirit; freedom from too high an opinion of his own merits.

quartered; stationed. incapable; not able to perform the duties of the offices they held. powers of awakening enthusiasm; ability to make the soldiers eager to conquer the enemy.

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70. dislodge; drive from their position. were indented; had an opening in them.
71. gained ground from their foes; began to get the better of the French.
73. perished; was killed. overthrew all his great designs; made all his

*William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.*

73. hamlet; small village. vehement; earnest and eager.
75. statesmen; men engaged in managing the affairs of the country.

*William Pitt (Contd.).*

76. energetic; pushing, hard working. to lead the new enterprises, to take command of the new expeditions. great colonial empire; Canada and other French colonies which we took.
77. colonists; settlers from the mother country. swathed; bandaged, wrapped up.

*The Story of Warren Hastings.*

79. to be burdened with him; to have the trouble and expense of looking after him. protected the natives, &c.; did not let the company's officers take money from them for their own uses.
80. disaster; great misfortune. hoards, stores. exhaustion; weariness.
81. putrid; rotten. irrigate; to supply with water by channels specially made. critical; dangerous.

*Warren Hastings (Contd.).*

82. to strike at once, &c.; to make war on the Mahrattas at once with all his power. seized the opportunity; took advantage of the fact.
84. all possible troops; all the troops he could spare.
85. wringing from; forcing to give up, extorting.

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- his acts of extortion; compelling people to pay more than was right. acquitted; declared not guilty.
86. realizing the dream, &c.; becoming owner of the estate of his forefathers, which had been one of the dearest fancies of his boyhood.

*Cook's Voyages.*

86. a press-gang; a body of seamen of the royal navy with authority to carry men off and force them to serve on the royal ships.
87. to sound, to find the depth of the various parts and show it by a chart surveying, finding the exact shape of the land, the position of the shoals, rocks, islands, &c., and the depth of the water off the coast. his strong sense of duty; his trying always to do what he thought he ought. the passage of the planet Venus; the transit of Venus. The planet being between the earth and sun, at certain intervals it appears to people on the earth as if it were passing across the face of the sun.

- To make sure of seeing it, &c. The planet will seem to cross the sun only to people so placed on the earth that the planet is in a straight line between their eye and the sun at the time. required place, where they wished to go.
89. observation of the customs, &c.; the note they took of the way the people live coral shores. The island, though volcanic, is surrounded by a coral reef.
90. proclaiming, &c.; going through the form of taking possession of New Zealand in the name of Great Britain.

*End of First Voyage, &c.*

90. tropical profusion. There were crowds of crowds of plants, such a lavish supply as can only be found in the tropics.

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- botanists; men who have a knowledge of plants.  
 so stolid and stupid; paid so little heed to what took place, and were so unable to think.
91. during the time occupied in repairs; while they were mending the ship.  
 reefs; rocks near the surface of the water.  
 annexed, &c.; claimed it for Britain.  
 privation and pestilence; want of supplies and sickness.
92. fatal to, caused the destruction or wreck of the ship.  
 Antarctic Ocean; the ocean round the South Pole.
94. forbade any attempt at forcing, made it unwise to try to force.

*The American War of Independence.*

97. cargoes; shiploads. persevered in the struggle; continued the war.  
 earthworks; defences made of earth.  
 red-coats, British soldiers.
98. use his position for selfish ends; as commander-in-chief seek his own good instead of the good of his country.  
 ever regarded him; always looked on him. independence, freedom from outside control.

*The Colonies Declare, &c.*

99. the fortune of war favoured the British; the British had the best of the struggle.  
 was a complete failure; the Americans were defeated.
100. remained with the colours; stayed on in the army.  
 mutinous; openly disobedient to their officers.  
 powers of persuasion and command; ability to win men over to his side by reasoning with them, and to keep them in order.  
 with varying fortunes; sometimes the one side got the best of it, sometimes the other.

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102. exhausted, worn out.  
 bankrupt; could not pay its debts, could get nobody to lend it money, and had not money enough for its present needs.  
 countless; very many. besiegers; those trying to take the place.  
 a broadside, the firing off at the same time of all the guns on one side of a ship.  
 Union Jack, the British flag—usually name given to flag of United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland
103. recognized their independence; acknowledged that they formed a distinct or sovereign state.

*William Pitt, the Younger.*

103. reverses; defeats, losses.
104. despairing, hopeless. Chancellor of the Exchequer; the officer whose business it is to manage the money matters of the country.  
 he took on his shoulders; he undertook. the heavy burden; the hard task. experience; practice in the management of public business.  
 sullen; in an ill humour.  
 hostile majority; there were more of the members against him than for him.
105. telling speeches; speeches that had a great effect on those who heard them.  
 whose honesty had not been above suspicion; people had not been sure of their honesty.
106. appealed to the people, dissolved parliament and let the electors decide between him and his opponents.
107. voice in public affairs; share in the government of the country.

*War with France.*

109. in a state of subjection; under their control, without the rights possessed by the free citizens of the country.
110. unfavourable terms; we gave up much to France, and the French yielded very little to us.

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112. organized a national defence, drew up a scheme for defending the country against its enemies.

martello towers; small round fortresses with very thick walls, built to protect the coast. The name was taken from Mortella, a fortress on that plan in Corsica, which gave the English ships much trouble in 1794

on the alert; on the watch.

disastrous; ruinous.

113. release from the troubles of life; death.

a merciful deliverance; a kindly release from trouble.

stripped of power; no longer prime minister. thrilling trump; stirring outcry.

beacon-light; a light to let sailors know of the presence of rocks or shoals.

our pilots, our leaders, the men who guide the state.

tottering; appearing about to fall. broke=broken.

quenched; put out. warder; keeper, watchman.

### *The Story of Lord Nelson*

113. guided his country's councils; managed public affairs; took the leading part in the deliberations on what should be done.

115. confident; sure they would win.

116. closely locked; firmly held together, their riggings had become entangled.

inspiring; encouraging. blockade; keep ships from coming out or going in. designs, plans or schemes.

shoal; a place where the water was of little depth.

119. lurid; wan,

### *Lord Nelson (Contd.)*

118. cut them off from, took away the means of getting back to.

119. hulks; heavy ships.

a flag of truce; messengers bearing a flag of truce.

truce; a bargain to stop the fighting for a time.

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120. cruising; sailing up and down. came to naught; was never carried out.

### *Lord Nelson (Contd.)*

120. devoted to their leader; they were ready to die for Nelson.

121. ebbcd, slipped gradually. reared; built, erected, raised up.

### *The Story of Wellington*

121. antagonist, one against whom you have to struggle.

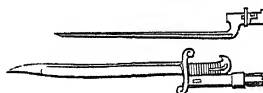
talented; gifted, having better natural ability than usual.

123. experience; actual trial.

reserved; keeping people at a distance.

124. breach; a break or opening in defences through which the enemy can pass.

125. bayonet; a short triangular sword or dagger that fits to the muzzle of



the gun, so as to form a weapon the soldier may use when fighting hand to hand.

126. routed; put to flight; beat.

brilliant services; the great things he had done in India.

### *Wellcsley commands in The Peninsula.*

126. enveloped all Europe in flames; all the countries of Europe were taking part in the war on one side or the other.

127. mistress of the seas; have power to lay down the law for other nations with regard to naval matters.

kidnapped; stole him away from his home.

desperate; almost hopeless.

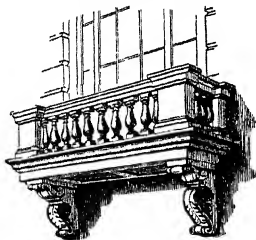
128. difficult pass; a narrow way through which an army could only go slowly.

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- desperate, furious, fought with the utmost fierceness.
129. charge; attack with the bayonet.
- allies; people working together for a common end or against a common enemy.
- warfare among the mountains; guerilla warfare. Bands of men who had their secret strongholds in the mountains, watched every chance and out off and destroyed small parties of French soldiers, and seized supplies intended for the French army.

*The French driven from The Peninsula.*

130. ridge, the level part at the top of a hill or between two slopes.
- unprotected; open to be attacked.
- dismayed; frightened.
131. asunder; in two.
- shattered; badly beaten.
132. give up their hold on; leave to the enemy.
133. balconies; platforms stretching out from the walls of a building. Such



platforms are mostly supported by pillars.

attire; clothing.

they were recognized; the people knew them.

134. scant; very slight.

*The End of The Great War.*

134. peasants; country people.
- adversary; opponent. The general fighting against him.

discontent against; dislike for, and wish to get rid of.

flocked to his side; came to him in crowds.

dethrone him; put him off the throne—seize him, imprison him, and make somebody else king.

surprise; catch them unprepared.

flinging a great French force, &c.; attacking the Prussians with a large French force.

to keep their position; to hold their ground.

plied them with cannon-shot; poured in on them a dreadful fire from their big guns.

cut them up; kill the greater number of them.

were reinforced; fresh soldiers had arrived to help them.

raw and undisciplined; they had not been drilled enough, and had no experience before that time of actual fighting.

137. prevent; hinder. opened, &c.; began with a heavy fire from the big guns on each side.

posted; placed. hurled; thrown with great force.

sabred; killed with their sabres or swords.

cuirasses; breast-plates.

surged; rose up like waves, and broke against their ranks as the waves do against the rocks.

139. anxiously; in a way that showed that he was beginning to fear that his men would not be able to hold out.

impatient; tired with waiting.

headlong rout; each man fleeing for his life.

abdicated; gave up the throne.

*Hargreaves and the Spinning-Jenny.*

139. altered the whole character; made them be carried on in an utterly different way.

inventors; men who find out new and better ways of doing work, and who make new machines or appliances for saving time, money, and labour.



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put by; laid aside, stored up.

140. apprentices; those engaged in learning a trade. **spinsters**; female spinners. **contrivance**, machine. **trivial**; usual.

*The Story of Arkwright and Crompton.*

143. knighted; made a *knight*, which gave the right to put the title *Sir* before his name.

144. haunted, visited by ghosts.

**mule**; a mule is the offspring of horse and ass, and has the good points of both.

145. retiring; did not care to mix among great people.

**centred**; was chiefly carried on.

*Cartwright and the Power-loom.*

146. cumbrous; clumsy.

**answer well**; well fulfil the purpose for which it was intended.

147. the cloth manufacture began to decay, the amount of cloth made grew less and less, and the factories were given up.

*James Watt and the Steam Engine.*

148. condensed; turned from the state of vapour to the liquid state. Watt's discovery led him to invent a *condenser*, by means of which waste steam was converted into water, which was used over again.

150. defects; faults; points in which the engine did not act as well as it should act

**gained him a wide reputation**; made him known as a clever man in many parts of the world far from his home.

**projects**; plans of inventing or carrying out some idea for machines.

151. unassuming manners. He did not push himself into notice as if he was 'somebody'.

**durable colours**; 'fast' colours; colours that will 'wash'.

**dulcimer**; a musical instrument consisting of an open box with wires

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stretched across it, these being struck by cork-headed hammers.

*George Stephenson and the Locomotive.*

153. threw all his energy, &c.; did his work with all his might.

154. labour under the same defect; suffer from the same want of education as his father.

**wear and tear**; strain; the using up of the horse's strength.

*George Stephenson (Contd).*

155. observant; quick at noticing things that were new or strange.

**Sir Humphry Davy**; one of the greatest chemists, was born in 1778 at Penzance, and died in 1829. His invention of the safety-lamp known as the "Davy", in 1815, has been the means of saving many lives by preventing explosions in mines.

156. has some improvements on; is in some ways better than.

**His reasoning so convinced**; he explained the use and power of his engine so well as to make Mr. Pease quite sure of its merits.

157. rustics; country people.

**off the scent**, make them fancy that the railway men were working at a place far away from the real place.

158. king of the road; the chief means of travelling.

**achievements**; works done.

**tubular**; in shape like a large tube or water-pipe.

*The Great Reform Bill.*

1. *How we came to need a Reform Bill.*

159. sullies; makes impure.

**slag**; the waste material produced in the smelting of metals.

160. pastoral and agricultural England; the part of England engaged in growing crops and rearing cattle and sheep.

2. *The Reform Bill is passed.*

161. a great outcry; the reason of the outcry was, that the country gentle-

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men and landowners saw that, by the Reform Bill, power would be taken out of the hands of their dependents, the country people, and put in the hands of free and independent townsmen.

• appeal to the country; election of members of Parliament, who would be chosen by the people to vote for or against reform.

There was intense indignation; the people were very angry because the House of Lords had thrown out the bill.

162. mob rule; a state of affairs in which the common and ignorant people would have too much power in the government, and would be able to get their own way by violence and disorder.

*John Howard.*

164. the prison system; the way in which prisons were managed and prisoners treated.

devastated; laid in ruins.

the maimed and bereaved; those whose bodies were badly injured, and those who had lost friends by death.

privateer; a ship belonging to a private person, but licensed by a government in time of war to attack the ships of a foreign nation.

166. sheriff; the chief legal officer and magistrate of a county.

167. made a tour of, went on a journey round.

*John Howard (Contd.).*

167. breaking with; having nothing more to do with; 'turning over a new leaf'.

169. humane; kind; treating men as men, and not as beasts.

influence over; power of causing them to act as he wished.

170. commemorate; keep in mind.

debased; made worse than before.

*William Wilberforce.*

170. puny; small for his age. The ancient Romans used to put out into the open air the weakly children, who

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were left to starve or die of cold, or to be eaten by wild beasts.

171. suppression, putting down, putting a stop to.

improvement of manners; getting men to lead better lives

*Elizabeth Fry.*

173. benevolent; eager to help people and make them happy. The Quakers are also called the *Society of Friends*. they are a religious sect, distinguished by their simple and pure life and by their hatred of war and slavery.

174. farmed; took, in return for a money payment, whole charge of children who for some reason were not wanted by their parents.

board, food.

*The Story of David Livingstone.*

177. in due course; after he had served his time.

slender; small.

179. the interior; the country away from the coast.

tedious, causing weariness.

arid; so dry and parched that nothing will grow.

180. won their confidence; got them to trust him.

sweet-reed; sugar-cane.

181. in the jaws of death; at the very point of being killed.

*David Livingstone (Contd.).*

181. enchanted; very much pleased.

seething; turning over and over as though boiling.

degraded; had habits more like those of animals than of men.

182. melt the hearts; make them kind instead of cruel.

kept up his peaceful attitude, still acted quietly and gently.

184. teeming with; full of.

185. River Nile. At that time no one knew where the river began.

*The Crimean War.*

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188. waned; became less.  
 189. by squadrons, divided into several smaller troops.  
 closed around them; hid them from sight.  
 formed in its rear; drawn up their ranks behind it.  
 bite the dust; fall dead to the ground

*The Crimean War (Contd.).*

190. hold our own; neither win nor lose but just keep the former position.  
 reinforcements, fresh soldiers.  
 hard service in the trenches, hard work in keeping up the earthworks, &c.  
 192. the Redan; another fortress.

*The Indian Mutiny.**The Outbreak.*

193. throw off the British yoke, free themselves from the rule of the English.  
 a spark, &c.; a little thing happened which caused the discontent to break out into a great rebellion.  
 cartridges; the little cardboard boxes containing the powder and shot. They were greased in order to make them slip easily down the barrel of the musket.  
 loathe, hate very much.  
 194. the revolt was general, nearly all the native people were in rebellion.  
 Ganges; the great river of India.

*Sir Colin Campbell quells the Mutiny.*

196. extend in a circuit, &c.; are more than  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles round.  
 197. gave new energy; made them work the harder.  
 198. over terrible odds; when the enemy was so much larger in number that the chances seemed all against the British.  
 a brief space; a short time.  
 gave themselves over, &c.; they did not stop slaying the rebels, even when the battle was over, they were so angry with them on account of their cruelty to English men and women.

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- Captain Garnet Wolseley; now Lord Wolseley. He beat the Ashantees, and won the great battle of Tel-el-Kebir in Egypt.  
 200. great works, such as railways, factories, reservoirs for water and irrigation canals.

*Our Colonies in the West.**The Dominion of Canada*

202. develop; make more of the land useful for growing crops and pasturing cattle.  
 tubular; in shape like a huge tube.  
 203. buttresses; large compact masses of masonry, for propping up or supporting larger structures.  
 floes; floating masses of ice.  
 telegraphic cable, a thick, rope-like line made up of several copper wires covered with gutta-percha or other like stuff, used for the purpose of sending messages by electric telegraph, more especially for sending telegraph messages across parts of the sea

*From Ocean to Ocean.*

203. drawback, that which hinders its advance in wealth.  
 204. fertilized; rendered more fit to bear good crops.  
 luxuriantly; in strong and numerous shoots.  
 subsoil, the earth that lies just below the surface.  
 hot-bed; a bed of earth which is made specially hot by the 'working' or fermentation of its substance, and so becomes specially suited for producing rich growth.  
 yield of wheat; the amount of grain produced.  
 ply; sail to and fro.  
 206. spurs; high ground that seems to shoot out from a mountain range.  
 magnitude; greatness.  
 enterprise; activity, readiness to undertake difficult tasks.

*Our Island Continent.*1. *Exploration and growth of Australia.*

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206. *navigable rivers*, rivers on which ships can sail.207. *convicts*; criminals. Formerly banishment from the country was one of the punishments for crime.208. *dwindle away*; became smaller and smaller.*lagoon*; a stretch of shallow water near the sea, usually separated from the deeper water by a low sandbank or by low sand-hills210. *droughts*; periods during which no rains falls.*Australia and New Zealand.*211. *to a size and perfection, &c.*; larger and better in flavour.212 *Galway*; west of Ireland.*produce* (with the accent on the first syllable), vegetables, grains, and fruits.213. *myriads*; many thousands.*political affairs*; matters of government, law, justice, &c.*Our Colonies in the Dark Continent.**Cape Colony and Natal.*214. *the Cape route* (pron. *root*), the way round the Cape.

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*irksome*; troublesome, strict, causing vexation.215. *agile*; active, quick in movement*commit suicide*; kill themselves.*Natal* (accent on *second* syllable).216. *natal* (accent on *first* syllable; in foreign language the accent would be on the *second*), birthday.*The Development of South Africa.*218. *corrugated iron*, sheet iron bent into wrinkles, or wave-like ridges and grooves.*hemisphere*; half of the globe.*verdure*, grass.*bulbs*; flowering plants with stems like the lily, tulip, or hyacinth.*intoxicating*; causing people to feel fresh and lively.*transparency*, clearness.219. *posterity*; descendants, the people who came after; that is, the British race.*sway*; rule.*eagles*; referring to the figure of an eagle which crowned the standards of the Romans. The meaning or the passage is, that British soldiers would conquer their enemies, and Britons would rule, in parts of the world which Cæsar, the great conqueror of the early Britons, never knew.